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PROCEEDINGS

OF THE

FORTY-SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION

OF THE

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ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL
ASSOCIATION

HELD IN

TORONTO

ON THE 14TH, 15TH AND 16TH APRIL, 1903.



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TORONTO:
WILLIAM BRIGGS.

1903.

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1903-04

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE
Minutes of the General Association	7
" " College and High School Department	14
" " Modern Language Section	16
" " Natural Science Section	18
" " Classical Section	20
" " Mathematical and Physical Section	24
" " Historical Section	26
" " Commercial Section	34
" " Public School Department	35
" " Kindergarten Department	48
" " Training Department	51
" " Inspectors' Department	52
" " Trustees' Department	56
Financial Statement	65
GENERAL ASSOCIATION—	
Some Needed Educational Reforms. John Seath, B.A., LL.D., Toronto.	66
The Goodly Fellowship of Teachers. Principal Gordon, Queen's University, Kingston	80
The Address of Hon. R. Harcourt	89
Camp-Schools. A. O. Patterson, M.A., Nairn Centre	105
COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT—	
Individualism in Education. J. E. Wetherell, B.A., Strathroy	106
The Relative Value to Public School Teachers of the Different Subjects on the High School Programme. F. W. Merchant, M.A., D.Pæd., London	114
The Authorization of Text-Books. W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B., St. Catharines	126
MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION—	
German Immigration to America. G. H. Needler, Ph.D., Toronto	131
"As You Like It" and Dramatic Unity. W. J. Alexander, Ph.D., Toronto	155
Ancient Greek Painting. Adam Carruthers, M.A., Toronto	165
Some Considerations on Romance in Nineteenth-Century English Literature. W. F. Tambllyn, Ph.D., London	166
Painting in Relation to Literature in France. J. Squair, B.A., Toronto.	175
Ueber Moderne Deutsche Lyrik. Von Heinrich Rembe, Conestogo, Ont.	177
John Richard Green. J. F. VanEvery, B.A., Napanee	192
Literature in the High Schools. A. M. Burnham, B.A., Collingwood...	201
Impressions from a Summer Session at the Alliance Française in Paris.	
Miss A. E. Marty, M.A., St. Thomas	213

	PAGE
NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION—	
Scientific Societies. Willet G. Miller, M.A., Toronto	219
CLASSICAL SECTION—	
Classical Training in Ontario. C. S. Kerr, B.A., Woodstock	244
A Review of Some Recent Classical Books. J. C. Robertson, B.A., Toronto	256
A Suitable Greek Introductory. Percy J. Robinson, M.A., St. Andrew's College, Toronto	259
First Year's Work in Latin. R. A. Little, B.A., London.....	265
MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION—	
Is Euclid the Best Geometry for the High School? A. D. Griffin, B.A., Woodstock	266
The German University and German University Mathematics. J. C. Fields, Ph.D., Toronto.....	274
HISTORICAL SECTION—	
The Dominion of Canada and the Commonwealth of Australia—A Comparison. William Dale, M.A., Toronto	296
COMMERCIAL SECTION—	
Some of the Advantages and Disadvantages of Some Modern Methods in Book-keeping. Arthur S. Laing, St. Catharines	303
Company Balance Sheets. J. W. Westervelt, C.A., Toronto	317
PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT—	
Moral Training in the Public School. Dr. J. M. Harper, Quebec	322
The Qualification of Public School Inspectors. A. Weidenhammer, Waterloo.....	325
Incorporation of the Teachers of the Province. L. T. Lochheed, M.A., Toronto	330
The Subject of Writing. W. H. Shaw, Toronto	336
TRAINING DEPARTMENT—	
Are Our Schools Making Good Citizens? Wm. Scott, B.A., Toronto....	342 ✓
Some Problems in the Training of Teachers. D. J. Goggin, M.A., D.C.L., Toronto	352
Experimental Psychology. Albert H. Abbott, B.A., Toronto.....	360
Model Schools and Their Improvement. W. H. Elliott, B.A., Toronto..	369
INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT—	
The Pedagogical Value of Psychology. Wm. Johnston, LL.D., Athens.	378
In Graded Schools can more Efficient Work be done with Two Classes in a Room than with One? J. Elgin Tom, Goderich	386
Should Teachers Form Unions to Raise Salaries? J. S. Deacon, Milton.	388 ✓
Tribute to Dr. MacCabe	390
TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT—	
The Centralization of Rural Public Schools. Mr. Parkinson, Editor <i>Canadian Teacher</i> , Toronto	391
Report of Committee on Variant Spellings. Dr. A. Hamilton, Toronto.	396
Constitution and By-Laws of the Ontario Educational Association	400
List of Members.....	405

PROCEEDINGS
OF THE
FORTY-SECOND ANNUAL CONVENTION
OF THE
ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

MINUTES OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

FIRST DAY—EVENING SESSION.

TUESDAY, April 14th, 1903.

The Convention met in the West Hall of the University of Toronto.

From 7.45 to 8 o'clock President Loudon and Mrs. Loudon received the members in the main hall of the University.

At 8 o'clock the chair was taken by the President of the Association, J. Seath, LL.D.

Rev. R. Atkinson read Proverbs 3rd chapter and led in prayer.

Moved by Mr. R. Alexander, seconded by Mr. J. L. Hughes, that as the Minutes of the meeting in 1902 have been printed and distributed, they be considered as read and that they be confirmed. Carried.

A letter from the Minister of Education was read asking for suggestions in reference to the proposed new courses of study for Public and High Schools.

The President, Dr. Seath, delivered his address.

A Scientific Conversazione was then given by the University professors.

The meeting adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, April 15th, 1903.

Dr. Seath, the President, took the chair at 8 o'clock p.m.

Communications were read from :

1. E. W. Bruce, M.A., Chairman of a joint meeting of the Public School, Training, and Trustees' Departments, having reference to the appointment of a committee to consider the proposed changes in the course of study for Public and High Schools.

2. From Mrs. A. Hoodless, *re* the organization of a Department of Domestic Science in connection with the Ontario Educational Association.

3. Mrs. J. R. Mason, Superintendent of Anti-narcotics W.C.T.U., asking for a resolution from this Association in aid of the Anti-Cigarette Bill now before the House of Commons at Ottawa.

4. Dr. D. M. Gordon, Principal of Queen's University, Kingston, inviting this Association to hold its next annual meeting in the university buildings there.

Dr. Goggin made an announcement respecting the meeting of the Dominion Educational Association, to be held in Winnipeg, July 7th, 8th and 9th, 1903.

Dr. D. M. Gordon addressed the Association on the "Goodly Fellowship of Teachers." See page 80.

Moved by Mr. Maurice Hutton, seconded by Mr. W. F. Chapman, that the thanks of this meeting be tendered to Dr. Gordon for the very encouraging and kindly words we have heard from him this evening. Carried.

Hon. R. Harcourt, Minister of Education, addressed the Association on the "Proposed Changes in the Courses of Study." See page 89.

Mr. James L. Hughes read the report of the Superannuation Committee, which was as follows :

Mr. President, Officers and Members of the Ontario Educational Association :

The Committee on the Superannuation of Teachers has the honor to report as follows :—

1. The Ontario Government does not propose to introduce a Civil Service Superannuation Scheme during the present session of the Legislature as was intended when the report of the Superannuation Committee was presented a year ago.

2. Your committee does not hope for the re-introduction of a system of superannuation for teachers, that will provide for a fund which will receive so large a measure of support from the Provin-

cial Treasury in proportion to the amounts paid by the teachers themselves, as was given by the system formerly in force in this province.

3. Your committee believes that if the teachers of Ontario will themselves establish a fund for providing retiring annuities for teachers who have reached a certain age, or who have become incapacitated for performing their duties by sickness, the Government of Ontario may be reasonably expected to aid such a fund by giving a fixed annual grant, provided the system of management proposed is approved by competent actuaries.

4. Your committee also hopes that the Government will be willing to administer the Superannuation Fund through the Department of Education in co-operation with a committee appointed by this Association. Your committee therefore recommends :

1. That this Association shall organize a system of superannuation for teachers and inspectors of Public and High Schools of Ontario, to be supported mainly by annual fees from the teachers and inspectors themselves, and aided by such grants as may be obtained from the Ontario Legislature, from school boards that may be willing to supplement the amounts received from the Central Superannuation Fund by teachers in their respective municipalities, and from other sources.

2. That the present Superannuation Committee be continued in office, and the teachers of any city, town or county that organizes a system of superannuation for its teachers during the ensuing year, may elect a representative to membership on the committee.

3. That the committee prepare a scheme of superannuation to be printed and distributed to Inspectors of Schools, Principals of High Schools and Collegiate Institutes, and Presidents of Teachers' Associations throughout Ontario at least two months before the next annual meeting of this Association.

4. That the committee be authorized to wait upon the Premier and the Minister of Education of Ontario to learn what, if any, grant may be expected annually from the Government in aid of the Teachers' Superannuation Fund.

5. That the Ontario Government be requested to publish the plan of superannuation recommended by the committee for distribution throughout Ontario.

6. That the necessary railway fares of the members of the Committee be paid to one meeting of the Committee.

Respectfully submitted,

JAMES L. HUGHES, *Chairman.*

On motion of Mr. Hughes, seconded by Mr. Wm. Scott, the report was received and adopted.

The following officers were elected for the year 1903-4.

<i>President,</i>	-	-	-	David Young, Guelph.
<i>General Secretary,</i>	-	-	-	Robert W. Doan, Toronto.
<i>Treasurer,</i>	-	-	-	Wm. J. Hendry, Toronto.

Miss Carruthers gave notice that on Thursday evening she would introduce the following resolution :

Moved by Miss Carruthers, Toronto, seconded by Mr. W. D. Spence, St. Mary's, that a Committee of the Ontario Educational Association, consisting of six members each from the Public School, College and High School, and the Inspectors' Departments, be appointed to draft a scheme for the incorporation of the teaching force of Ontario, such committee to report at the meeting of the Association in 1903.

A report from the Public School, Training and Trustees' Departments, was read as follows :

At a joint meeting of the Public School, Training and Trustees' Departments it was moved by J. Dearness, seconded by S. B. Sinclair, that a recommendation be sent to the General Association at its next session, that a committee consisting of eight members from the College and High School Department, five from the Public School Department and two from each of the Inspectors', Trustees' and Training Departments respectively, such members to be elected by the respective departments, be appointed to consider the proposed changes in the Public and High School course of study and to advise the Honorable the Minister of Education as to their deliberations and recommendations at as early a date as convenient.

Moved by Mr. J. H. Putman, seconded by Mr. R. Alexander, that the request of Mrs. A. Hoodless for the formation of a section of Domestic Science be referred to the Board of Directors. Carried.

Mr. J. H. Putman gave notice that he would on Thursday evening move that the invitation extended by Principal Gordon to hold our meeting for 1904 at Kingston be accepted.

The reports of the Treasurer and the Auditors were read and adopted. See page 65.

The meeting adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1903.

The Association met in the West Hall. President Séath took the chair at 8 p.m.

A letter from President Loudon, of the University of Toronto, was read, in which it was stated that the University authorities would be glad to have the annual meetings of the Ontario Educational Association held at the University and that the authorities will be delighted at all times to place the building at the service of the Association.

Miss E. M. Curzan, B.A., addressed the Association on "Household Science."

A. O. Patterson, M.A., addressed the Association on "Camp Schools."

The report of the committee appointed to discuss the organization of a Committee on Resolutions and the Educational Council was read by Mr. J. Squair :

1. With regard to the amendment suggested by the East Victoria Teachers' Association, your Committee recommends as follows :

(a) That a General Committee of the Ontario Educational Association, consisting of four representatives from the Public School Department, four from the College and High School Department, four from the Trustees' Department, two from the Inspectors' Department, two from the Training Department, and one from the Kindergarten Department, be appointed. (Carried.)

(b) That these representatives be elected at the Easter meeting of the Ontario Educational Association each year by the various departments.

(c) That the Public School Department elect its representatives by the delegates from the various associations of teachers throughout the Province, each Inspectoral District having as many votes as there are teachers actually employed in the Inspectorate. (Lost.)

(d) That the functions of the committee shall be to consider all resolutions of the general Association, or of any of its departments, or of any local association, and to make such recommendations to the Minister of Education or representations to the Legislature regarding them as it may deem expedient.

(e) That this committee shall meet at 10 a.m. on the Friday following the Easter meeting of the Ontario Educational Association.

ciation, and at any other time at the call of the Chairman on the request of three members.

(f) That the travelling expenses of members of this committee be paid by the Department electing such members.

2. With reference to Mr. W. F. Moore's motion, your committee recommends as follows :

(a) That the representation of the Educational Council be as follows: Seven representatives from the Universities, viz., Two from the University of Toronto, and one from Trinity, one from Queen's, one from McMaster, one from Ottawa, and one from the Western University; five representatives from the High School Department, seven from the Public School Department, one from the Trustees' Department, two from the Inspectors' Department, one from the Training Department, and one to be appointed by the Minister of Education.

(b) That the said representatives shall be chosen as follows: The Governing Boards of the Universities to appoint their representatives, and the others to be appointed by the several departments of the Ontario Educational Association at the Easter meeting.

(c) That the functions of the committee shall be :

(1) The recommendation of text-books for authorization in Public and High Schools.

(2) The conduct of all examinations held by the Education Department.

February 6th, 1903.

On motion the report was received and the Association resolved itself into a Committee of the Whole for the purpose of considering the report, Mr. Squair in the chair. After the committee rose the Chairman read the amended report, which was as follows :

The committee appointed to consider the organization of a Committee on Resolutions and of the Educational Council, begs to report :

1. With regard to the amendment suggested by the East Victoria Teachers' Association, your committee recommends as follows :

(a) That a General Committee of the Ontario Educational Association, consisting of four representatives from the Public School Department, four from the College and High School Department, four from the Trustees' Department, two from the

Inspectors' Department, two from the Training Department and one from the Kindergarten Department, be appointed.

(b) That these representatives be elected at the Easter meeting of the Ontario Educational Association each year by the various Departments.

(c) That the functions of the committee shall be to consider all resolutions of the General Association, or of any of its departments, or of any local Association, and to make such recommendations to the Minister of Education or representations to the Legislature regarding them as it may deem expedient.

(d) That this committee shall meet at 10 a.m. on the day following the Easter meeting of the Ontario Educational Association, and at any other time on the call of the chairman on the request of three members.

(e) That the travelling expenses of members of this committee be paid by the General Association.

Part II. of the report was referred back to the committee with instructions to report and it was agreed that no action be taken in reference to Part I. until the annual meeting in 1904. The amended report was adopted.

Dr. Hamilton presented a report on "Variant Spelling." See page 396.

The report was adopted and the committee's request to continue its work was granted.

Moved by Mr. J. H. Putman, seconded by Mr. W. S. Ellis, that this Association accept the invitation of Principal Gordon to hold our next meeting at Queen's University in the City of Kingston. Lost.

Moved by Mr. G. A. Aylesworth, seconded by Mr. H. I. Strang, that this Association thanks the Kingston people for their invitation, but that the next convention of this Association be held in the buildings of the University of Toronto. Carried.

Moved by Mr. H. I. Strang, seconded by Mr. S. McAllister, that the hearty thanks of this Association be and are hereby tendered to the authorities of the University of Toronto, of the Medical School and of the School of Practical Science, for the courteous and hospitable manner in which the members of the Association have been treated by said authorities during the present convention. Carried.

Mr. W. Scott, Toronto, moved, seconded by Mr. S. B. Sinclair, Ottawa, that a notice of the death of J. A. MacCabe, LL.D., late

Principal of the Ottawa Normal School, be printed in the proceedings of this Association. See page 390. Carried.

Moved by Norman F. Black (Lindsay), seconded by John Henderson (St. Catharines), that the report of Prof. Squair's Committee be further amended by the addition of the following clause: That in the case of Departments that have not already made the necessary arrangement for representation on this Central Revising Committee, their respective Executives are for the current year authorized to appoint the representatives for their Departments upon the said Revising Committee. Motion declared out of order by the Chairman *pro tem.*, Mr. E. W. Bruce.

Moved by Mr. Squair, seconded by Mr. H. I. Strang, that the Board of Directors consider the advisability of holding the meetings of the Association on Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday evenings of Easter week instead of as at present. Carried.

Moved by Professor Hutton, seconded by Mr. H. I. Strang, that the President of the Association, Mr. D. Young, be the convener of the Committee of Nineteen, which has been appointed to consider the draft of the proposed changes in the Public and High School courses of study. Carried.

Moved by Mr. S. McAllister, seconded by Mr. J. Suddaby, that the thanks of the Association are hereby tendered to the President and the other officers of the Association for the efficient manner in which they have discharged their duties during the year. Carried.

The motion *re* Teachers' Union of which Miss Carruthers gave notice was laid over for another year.

After the members had joined in singing the National Anthem the Chairman declared the meeting adjourned.

*MINUTES OF THE COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL
DEPARTMENT.*

MORNING SESSION.

The College and High School Department of the Ontario Educational Association met at 10 a.m. Thursday, April 16th, 1903.

Mr. J. E. Wetherell in the chair.

The minutes of the previous meeting were read by the Secretary and adopted.

The President, Mr. J. E. Wetherell, then read his address.

Mr. Merchant followed in a paper on the "Relative Value to Public School Teachers of the Different Subjects on the High

School Programme." The paper was criticized by Messrs. Hume, Knight, Strong, Moshier, Ellis, McBrien and Hagarty.

Moved by Mr. Embree, seconded by Mr. Hagarty, that this Department is gratified to learn from an announcement in the public press that the Minister of Education proposes to increase the powers and duties of the Educational Council and the number of representatives of teachers on that body, but would urge that the High School representatives on the Educational Council be elected by ballot to that body by the qualified High School masters in the province. Carried.

Moved by Prof. Squair, seconded by T. H. Smyth, that the eight members to be elected for supervision of the curriculum be chosen from those elected by the sections as far as possible, and giving one representative each to the Historical and Commercial Sections, and that the following be elected: Messrs. Ellis, Hutton, A. Stevenson, Gray, Eldon, Strang, W. J. Robertson and Squair. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Embree, seconded by Mr. W. J. Robertson, that another year be allowed to Classical Committee to report on pronounciation. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Hagarty, seconded by R. A. Thompson, that this department declare itself in favor of a fifty per cent. standard at all examinations, and that the curriculum be so adjusted, and where necessary curtailed, so as to render such standard possible for the average student. Lost.

The following stands as a notice of motion, introduced by Mr. Hagarty: "That the Committee of Eight already appointed by this department for the special purposes of this year be regarded as a Standing Committee on Education for this department to be reappointed annually."

The following resolution by the Commercial Section was referred to the Committee of Nineteen, viz.: That (1) page 17, section 3, sub-section 1, have the word "Book-keeping" added; (2) in connection with the Commercial Course a uniform final examination be held.

The representatives elected by the four sections of Science Classics, Mathematics and Modern Languages are: Messrs. W. S. Ellis, G. K. Mills, Strang, Hutton, R. A. Gray, J. D. Dickson, Squair, and A. Stevenson—of these Messrs. Mills (Science), and Dickson (Mathematics), were retired to give the Historical and Commercial Sections representatives, Messrs. Eldon and W. J. Robertson being elected.

The following are the representatives to the College and High School Department: A. Carruthers, President; T. H. Smyth, Secretary; H. S. Robertson, Stratford, Mathematics; E. L. Hill, B.A., Guelph, Science; J. Squair, B.A., Modern Languages; W. J. Robertson, M.A., LL.D., History; H. J. Crawford, B.A., Classics; R. H. Eldon, B.A., Commercial.

The following College and High School officers were elected:

<i>President,</i>	-	-	-	A. Carruthers, B.A.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	-	-	L. E. Embree, M.A.
<i>Secretary,</i>	-	-	-	T. H. Smyth, M.A., B.Sc., Toronto.

From the representatives the following directors to the General Board of Directors were elected: Messrs. A. Carruthers, T. H. Smyth, H. S. Robertson, E. L. Hill, J. Squair, W. J. Robertson.

MINUTES OF MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1903.

The Section assembled at 10 a.m. in Room 9, the President, G. H. Needler, Ph.D., in the chair.

At the morning session papers were read by G. H. Needler, Ph.D., on "German Immigration to America," and W. J. Alexander, Ph.D., on "'As You Like It,' and Dramatic Unity."

At 2 p.m. the Section assembled in joint meeting with the Classical and Historical Sections in the Biological Building. The programme consisted of (1) "Ancient Greek Painting" (with lantern projections), by A. Carruthers, M.A., of the Classical Association; (2) "Greek, Roman, English and American Conceptions of Liberty," by W. S. Milner, M.A., of the Historical Section, and (3) "Painting in Relation to Literature in France" (with lantern projections), by J. Squair, B.A., of the Modern Language Section.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

The Section re-assembled at 10 a.m.

Pastor Rembe, of Conestoga, read a paper on "Die Moderne Deutsche Lyrik."

Pastor Rembe also read some selections from his own volume of verse.

The thanks of the Section were tendered him for his interesting and valuable paper.

J. F. Van Every, B.A., read a paper on "John Richard Green," and W. T. F. Tamblyn, Ph.D., read a paper on "The Romance of the Nineteenth Century."

The following officers were elected :

<i>President</i>	-	-	-	A. E. Lang.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	-	-	I. M. Levan.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	-	-	J. Squair.
<i>Councillors,</i>	-	-	-	Miss G. Lawler, Miss A. E. Marty, Messrs. J. D. Christie, J. S. Lane, W. S. McLay, W. H. Vander- Smissen.

At 2 p.m. the Section re-assembled.

The following resolution was adopted :

That in view of the numerous and radical changes involved in the proposed revision of the Departmental Regulations the Modern Language Section records its opinion that (1) an opportunity should be afforded to all departments of the Ontario Educational Association for due consideration of the Regulations, (2) that such consideration is impossible at the present meeting, and (3) that a final decision on the matter should be postponed until after the next annual meeting of the Association.

It was also resolved :

That in view of the lack of time for consideration of the proposed regulations we recommend to the College and High School Department the appointment of a committee to discuss the Regulations and that five delegates to such committee be appointed who shall have power to appoint a smaller committee from their number if deemed advisable.

The following five delegates were then appointed : Messrs. Squair, Stevenson, Hogarth, Jones and Nesbit.

A. M. Burnham, B.A., read a paper on "The Study of Literature in High Schools."

Miss A. E. Marty, M.A., read a paper on "Impressions of a Summer Session at the Alliance Française."

L. E. Horning, Ph.D., read a paper on "German in the High Schools."

After adjournment Dr. Needler and Mrs. Needler held a reception for members in the Faculty Union of the University.

MINUTES OF NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1903,

The Natural Science Section met in the Chemical Building at 2 p.m., President G. K. Mills in the chair.

The Minutes of last year were read, and, upon motion, confirmed.

Mr. W. S. Ellis gave a report on the proposed changes in the new curriculum of studies, outlining the work that had been done by the Committee.

The Secretary explained that for some reason for which he was not responsible, the joint meeting for discussion of Nature Study had failed to appear on the programme though he had made arrangements therefor. He announced that the Public School and Training Departments were willing to have the Natural Science Section join them at 3 p.m.

Mr. W. K. T. Smellie was appointed press reporter.

The meeting adjourned to West Hall for discussion of Nature Study. At this meeting Mr. Ellis gave a very pointed address, dealing with the need for important changes in the present course of study in Public Schools.

THURSDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1903.

The Section met at 10 a.m., the President in the chair.

The Secretary read a communication from the Minister of Education relative to a list of desirable books. Upon motion the preparation of such a list was referred to the officers of the Association.

A communication from Mr. E. W. Hagarty was read relating to an Educational Committee. It was moved that the communication be laid on the table till other business should be finished. Carried.

The Treasurer read his report showing a small deficit for the year.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

Honorary President - - - F. J. Smale, B.A., Ph.D., Toronto.

President - - - J. A. Taylor, B.A., Dutton.

Vice-President - - - Carl Lehmann, B.A., Toronto.

Sec.-Treas. and Representative

to College and H. S. Dept. - E. L. Hill, B.A., Guelph.

Councillors - - - T. H. Lennox, B.A., W. K. T. Smellie, B.A., T. H. Follick, B.A., W. S. Ellis, B.A., B.Sc., G. K. Mills, B.A.

Mr. Hagarty's letter was dealt with clause by clause, and upon motion it was resolved to take no action on the first clause, and to defer action on the second and third clauses.

The President explained that he had omitted his address to make further space for the general discussion.

The discussion of the proposed courses of study was then proceeded with. Moved by Mr. Ellis, seconded by Dr. Coleman, that as far as this Association is concerned we are satisfied with the Geography as outlined. Messrs. Hamilton, Hume and Smyth contributed to the discussion. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Ellis, seconded by the Secretary, that report of the Committee on Botany for the Lower School be adopted. Amendment by Mr. Hume, seconded by Mr. Lehmann, that report be adopted, but that it be a suggestion to the Education Department that the examinations be retained. The amendment was lost, and original motion carried.

Upon motion of Messrs. Ellis and Hill the report on Zoology was adopted.

The report on Physics evoked considerable discussion, chiefly regarding details, and upon motion of Messrs. Ellis and Hill, this clause was also adopted.

Moved by Mr. Ellis, seconded by Mr. Follick, that the report of the Committee for the Lower School be adopted. Carried.

Moved by Mr. Smellie, seconded by Mr. Smyth, that recommendation be made to the Education Department that a more extended syllabus of work be issued with suggestions for carrying it out. Carried.

Upon motion of Messrs. Smellie and Turner, the thanks of the Association were tendered the Committee for their work in connection with the report.

Messrs. Ellis and Mills were appointed to represent this Association on any joint committee that might be appointed by the College and High School Department to co-operate in considering the draft courses of study submitted to the Ontario Educational Association.

At 2 p.m. the Association met with the Mathematical and Physical Association. Prof. W. G. Miller, Provincial Geologist, Honorary President of the Natural Science Association, gave a highly interesting address on "Scientific Societies," in which he cited many historical facts regarding the co-operation of scientific men in various organizations. The paper appears in the Proceedings.

Dr. C. A. Chant contributed a very lucid description of some recent developments in wireless telegraphy, neatly illustrating the points by appropriate experiments.

Prof. R. Ramsay Wright and Dr. J. C. McLennan gave explanations of the new science courses of the University of Toronto.

After adjournment of the joint meeting an informal meeting of the Natural Science Association was held, and the feeling was expressed that the proposed course in Upper School Physics was not in every way satisfactory to all, and that the opinion of the members ought to be secured so as to assist the Committee in considering the proposed courses of study.

MINUTES OF THE CLASSICAL SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1903.

The Association met in Room 2, University College, at 10.30 a.m., the President, Mr. C. S. Kerr, in the chair. On motion, the minutes of 1902, as printed in the Proceedings, were taken as read.

The President then gave his address on "Classical Training in Ontario—Past, Present, Future."*

The Hon. President, Prof. J. C. Robertson, followed with "A Review of some recent Classical Books."* Prof. Robertson had with him the books to which he referred, and during the session these were examined by the members.

After lunch in the University dining-hall, the members of this Association met with the Modern Language and Historical Sections in the Biological building, and listened to three admirable addresses. Mr. W. S. Milner spoke on "Greek, Roman, English and American Conceptions of Liberty"; Mr. J. Squair on "Painting in Relation to Literature in France," and Mr. A. Carruthers on "Ancient Greek Painting";* a number of lantern slides were shown to illustrate the paintings described.

*This paper is published in the Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1903.

The Association resumed at 9 a.m.

In accordance with the suggestion contained in a communication from Mr. E. W. Hagarty relative to the formation of a representative Educational Committee, on motion of Prof. Fletcher, seconded by Prof. Robertson, Principal Hutton and Mr. Strang were named as the Classical representatives.

A discussion ensued on the proposed changes in the High School programme. Prof. Fletcher reprobated the excess of Science, referred to the futility of studying Latin if it were not to be continuous, and thought that, if the curriculum of the teachers' course determined the programme in High Schools, the result would be to drive many pupils from these schools.

Mr. Murton, an Oshawa trustee (being invited to speak), offered some practical hints to the Section.

Mr. Steele, of Orangeville High School, thought it was necessary to reduce the time spent on Latin, but not to annihilate its study; the teachers' course determined, in many schools, the programme.

Mr. Pakenham, of the Toronto Technical School, held that to withdraw languages would be a serious error; absence of culture was a poor foundation for scientific training.

Mr. McMurchy, of Chesley, thought the removal of Latin would not be so "popular" as represented; he spoke from his experience with continuation classes.

Prof. Robertson held that the study of Latin, even for one year, was valuable, and that the teachers' course might be made easier in Latin than Matriculation and yet be of great service to him in the understanding of English Grammar.

Mr. Milner thought the amount of Latin Composition was excessive.

Messrs. Hagarty, McBride and L. C. Smith also took part in the discussion, which closed with the passing of a motion by Mr. Bell, seconded by Mr. Colbeck:

"Whereas it is proposed by the Education Department to rearrange the course of studies for teachers' certificates, and in the proposed scheme Latin does not find a place, nor may French and German be offered as options;

"And whereas language studies have not been required from candidates for teachers' certificates a sufficiently long time to demonstrate the great advantage to be derived therefrom, as only a very small percentage of our Public School teachers have received language training;

"And whereas the requirement of Latin for the Senior certificate, when it is not exacted for the Junior grade, will lead to hasty and inefficient training; therefore be it resolved that we, the Classical Association of Ontario emphatically protest against this proposed change, and earnestly urge upon the authorities the advisability of retaining Latin on the list of studies for the Junior examination, though we think the amount of work at present required might be somewhat lessened."

A committee was then elected to take measures to have effect given to these views; following are the members: Messrs. Hutton, Fletcher, Robertson, G. O. Smith, Carruthers, Strang, Henderson and Mayberry.

Mr. Strang next briefly spoke on Greek for Matriculation, recommending White's "First Greek Book" to replace the same author's "Beginner's Greek Book," and referring to his article in the *Educational Monthly* for a more extended statement of his views.

In the absence of the author, Mr. Grant, of St. Andrew's College, read Mr. P. J. Robinson's paper on "A Suitable Greek Introductory."*

In the discussion on the paper Mr. Crawford mentioned his experience in favor of White's "First Greek Book," and a motion by Mr. Hagarty, seconded by Mr. Grant, was carried, referring the matter to the Committee of Eight and recommending that the textbook for Greek be left optional, on the understanding that the examination shall be based upon the first eight chapters of Xenophon.

At the afternoon session Mr. Michell brought up his motion for the reduction of the number of councillors to four, and this carried

The following officers were elected for 1903-4.

<i>Honorary President</i>	-	Chancellor Burwash.
<i>President,</i>	- -	A. Carruthers.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	- -	R. A. Little.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	H. J. Crawford.
<i>Councillors,</i>	- -	G. Oswald Smith, E. W. Hagarty, S. F. Passmore, W. M. Logan.
<i>Representative to the Col- lege and High School Department,</i>	- -	H. J. Crawford.

* This paper is published in the Proceedings.

Moved by Chancellor Burwash, seconded by Prof. Robertson, that the Toronto members of the Executive form a committee to draw up a list of books suitable for the supplementary catalogue, as requested by the Minister of Education. Carried.

A motion was passed authorizing payment of one dollar to Mr. Carruthers for services of electrician.

Mr. Little then read his paper on "High School Work in Latin for the First Year."*

The Association next listened to an instructive and eloquent address by Prof. McFadyen on "Hebraism and Hellenism."

There were many points of contact as well as of conflict, said the lecturer, between the Greek and the Hebrew literature. The Greeks, who were careful stylists, paid much attention to form, for which the Hebrews cared little, being rather inspired and emotional than objective or critical. The sense of symmetry affected the content no less than the form of Greek literature; the Greek always showed balance, the Hebrew enthusiasm and "pursuit." The Greek was always an artist and æsthetic even in his ethics; the Hebrew was whole-hearted and took sides. In Greek writers this characteristic often appeared as impartiality, notably in Thucydides.

Though many statements in the Ethics of Aristotle bore a striking resemblance to New Testament utterances, the differences were equally striking, as in the treatment of happiness and temperance; the "magnanimous man" of Aristotle was in strange contrast to the Christian ideal.

Plato was nearest to the Christian view. An instructive parallel might be drawn between Plato and St. Paul in their views of the body; they would be found similar in sentiment but differing in motive.

As to their conception of God, the Greeks often represented their gods as jealous of success—the artistic sense reappearing in their theology. The Greek view of suffering became almost Christian in Plato, to whom the cross would not have been foolishness.

The pathos of life appeared everywhere in Greek writers from Homer to the anthology; it was due to balance of mind, experience, and lack of the sense of God.

The Hebrew had a note of sadness, too, but to him "the earth was the Lord's," and so his sadness was relieved by his dominating sense of God. This omnipresent sense of God formed the chief differentiating factor between the Hebrew and the Greek literature.

* This paper is published in the Proceedings.

Inspector Hodgson, in his paper on "The Teaching of Classics in our High Schools," was pleasantly reminiscent.

His observation showed that in the average school a fair ideal was attained, and in the best schools excellent results. He recommended a review of English Grammar with beginners, the practice of oral reading and of sight translation of the next day's work, and idiomatic translation.

Mr. W. M. Logan, speaking from his experience in the Normal College, deprecated the teaching of junior classes by those poorly equipped in knowledge, and suggested that the certificates of Assistants should specify the subjects they were competent to teach.

The meeting adjourned at 4.30 to accept Dean Reeve's invitation to visit the new medical building.

After the evening session of the general Association, the annual reunion dinner was held in the University dining-hall and was attended by about thirty-five members. Among the guests were Principal Gordon, of Queen's University; Mr. G. A. Aylesworth, of the Trustees' Department, and Mr. L. E. Embree, of Parkdale Collegiate Institute.

H. J. CRAWFORD, *Secretary*.

MINUTES OF THE MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1903.

The Mathematical and Physical Section met at 2 p.m. in Room 9, University College, the President, W. E. Rand, B.A., in the chair.

The Minutes of the meeting of 1902 were read and approved.

Mr. J. D. Dickson was appointed Press Reporter.

The President gave a paper on the life and works of C. L. Dodgson.

Mr. A. D. Griffin, B.A., followed with a paper entitled "Is Euclid the best Geometry for our High Schools?" Messrs Dobson, Birchard, Gray and Baker took part in the discussion which followed.

A committee, consisting of Messrs. Griffin, Gray, Murray and Birchard, was appointed to draft a resolution along the lines of the discussion and report to-morrow.

J. C. Fields, Ph.D., of Toronto University, then read a paper on "The German University and German University Mathematics."

On motion of Messrs. Birchard and Hogarth the thanks of the Section were tendered to Dr. Fields. The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1903.

The Section met at 9.30 a.m. in Room 16.

R. Wightman, B.A., was appointed Press Reporter.

A paper on "Devices in teaching Algebra," with blackboard illustrations was read by Mr. C. Auld, B.A. This was followed by a paper on "The Number System of Algebra," by Mr. T. E. A. Stanley, B.A.

The Financial Statement for 1902, showing a balance on hand of \$31.09 was then read by the Secretary and adopted.

A committee, consisting of Dr. Birchard, Prof. DeLury, F. F. Manley and H. S. Robertson, was appointed to prepare a list of mathematical books for the Supplementary Catalogue to be issued by the Education Department.

R. A. Gray, B.A., and J. D. Dickson, B.A., were appointed to represent this Section on a committee from the various sections, to consider the proposed changes in the courses of study.

Mr. Griffin presented the report of the Committee on Geometrical Study, appointed on Tuesday. This report, while approving of the work outlined for the Lower School in the draft submitted by the Education Department for consideration, suggested changes in that prescribed for the Middle and Upper Schools and recommended the appointment of a committee consisting of R. A. Gray, B.A., I. J. Birchard, Ph.D., J. C. Glashan, LL.D., A. T. DeLury, M.A., C. L. Cresweller, B.A., W. J. Robertson, M.A., A. D. Griffin, B.A., Prof. McKay and A. H. McDougall, M.A., to consider the matter and report next year. The report was adopted.

The election of officers was then proceeded with and resulted as follows:

<i>Honorary President,</i>	-	-	W. E. Rand, B.A.
<i>President,</i>	-	-	S. Martin, B.A.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	-	R. Gourlay, B.A.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	-	H. S. Robertson, B.A.

<i>Councillors,</i>	-	-	-	-	T. E. A. Stanley, B.A.
					W. M. Govenlock, B.A.
					I. J. Birchard, Ph.D.
					A. T. DeLury, M.A.
					A. D. Griffin, B.A.
					J. C. Fields, Ph.D.
					C. A. Chant, Ph.D.
					R. A. Gray, B.A.

*Representative to College
and High School De-
partment,*

- - - - H. S. Robertson, B.A.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON SESSION.

The Section held a joint meeting with the Natural Science Section this afternoon in Room 16.

Mr. W. G. Miller, B.A., read a paper on "Scientific Societies." C. A. Chant, Ph.D., gave an address, illustrated by experiments, on "Recent Developments in Wireless Telegraphy."

Prof. Ramsay Wright and Prof. J. C. McLennan, in short addresses, explained the new arrangement of Science Courses in Toronto University.

The meeting then adjourned.

H. S. ROBERTSON, *Secretary.*

MINUTES OF THE HISTORICAL SECTION

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1903.

At the joint meeting of the Historical Section and the Public School Department, held in the West Hall of the University of Toronto at 10 a.m., the report of the Committee on History was not taken up, as the King's Printer had failed to deliver the printed copies of the report. Accordingly, it was arranged that it should be presented on Thursday morning at 11 o'clock.

On Tuesday afternoon at 2 o'clock a very successful meeting was held conjointly with the Classical and the Modern Language Sections in the Biological Building, Mr. C. S. Kerr, B.A., of the Classical Section in the chair. Three admirable addresses were

delivered: "Ancient Greek Paintings" (with projections), by A. Carruthers, M.A.; "Greek, Roman, English and American Conceptions of Liberty," by W. S. Milner, M.A.; and "Painting in Relation to Literature in France" (with projections), by J. Squair, B.A.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1903. .

A joint meeting with the Ontario Historical Society was held at 2 p.m. in Room No. 4 of University College, the President, Dean Rigby, in the chair.

The following officers were elected for 1903:

<i>President,</i>	-	-	Rev. Oswald Rigby, M.A.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	-	Adam Carruthers, M.A.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	-	John Stewart Carstairs, B.A., Toronto.
<i>Councillors,</i>	-	-	W. S. Milner, M.A.
			A. C. Casselman.
			Adam Shortt, M.A.
			George M. Wrong, M.A.
			J. P. Hoag, B.A.
			W. C. Michell, B.A.
			Miss Nellie Spence, B.A.
			Miss Alice Kelso.
			Miss Janet Carnochan.
			W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B.

Representative to the H. S.

and College Department, W. J. Robertson, B.A., LL.B.

At the request of the Hon. Minister of Education, a small committee, consisting of Messrs. George M. Wrong, M.A., Rev. Dean Rigby, M.A., and J. S. Carstairs, B.A., was appointed to assist in the consideration of the historical portion of the catalogue issued by the Education Department.

The paper of Mr. C. C. James, M.A., Deputy Minister of Agriculture, consisted of excerpts from several unpublished journals that admirably mirrored early life in Upper Canada,—excerpts from "The Reminiscences of Mrs. White of White's Mills, near Cobourg, 1860," and from the "Memoirs of Roger Bates of Northumberland County, 1860." These were supplemented by a paper on "How to Study our Grandfathers," written by Mr. A. F. Hunter, B.A., of Barrie.

A brief and pointed review of Holland's "*Imperium et Libertas*"

was presented by the Rev. H. F. T. Duckworth, M.A., of Trinity University; and was followed by an able contrast of the "Federal Systems of Australia, the United States and Canada," by Professor William Dale, M.A., of McMaster University.

Mr. J. H. Coyne's excellent sketch of "The Career of Colonel Talbot, Founder of the Talbot Settlement," was accompanied by the presentation of a number of interesting documents and relics of the Colonel.

On motion of Mr. J. S. Carstairs, seconded by Mr. W. J. Robertson, Professor Dale was requested to furnish his paper for publication in the proceedings.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1903.

By the courtesy of the President and members of the Public School Department the Committee on History presented its report at the morning session in the East Hall of University College.

Moved by Professor Wrong, seconded by Mr. J. S. Carstairs, that the printed report of the Committee on History be received.

The motion was supported by Rev. J. O. Miller, and after a brief discussion was carried. The following is

THE REPORT ON HISTORY:

Your Committee appointed

- (1) To draw up a syllabus of work suited to each grade of our primary and secondary schools;
- (2) To suggest such a supply of material as shall be suited to each grade;

begs leave to report as follows:

(1) Three meetings of the Committee were held. At the first, convened in the University of Toronto on December 26th, 1902, Mr. J. S. Carstairs was appointed Secretary; Mr. Matchett having resigned, Mr. A. C. Casselman, of the Toronto Normal School, was nominated in his place. In February a joint meeting was held with the Association of Toronto Public School Principals; and early in April there was a final session at the residence of the Chairman, Professor George M. Wrong.

(2) The accompanying schedules are an attempt to crystallize and embody these deliberations; and while your Committee does not feel called on to discuss the aims and methods of history, these have received consideration at every stage of the course as planned.

(3) Your Committee would recommend that the Education Department be requested to encourage by special grants every school that will purchase efficient working libraries of historical books (especially Canadian), sets of historical readers, and sets of historical illustrations—those means whereby alone a definite and intimate knowledge of the past and present of our people may be obtained and a sound and intelligent national spirit may be nurtured in each child.

(4) It has not been considered necessary to increase the size of the report by lists of books suited to each stage. This is a matter of detail that can readily be worked out if the syllabus comes into force.

(5) Your Committee would also bear testimony to the courtesy and kindness of the Minister of Education in printing this report.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

GEORGE M. WRONG, *Chairman.*

J. S. CARSTAIRS, *Secretary.*

J. O. MILLER.

A. C. CASSELMAN.

HISTORY.

PUBLIC SCHOOL COURSE.

Form I.

1. Stories of the earliest inhabitants of Ontario and Canada. The Indians and Eskimos; with special reference to the Indian Tribes formerly inhabiting the school localities.

2. The ancient Britons.

3. (a) The story of Abraham and first settlement of Canaan.
(b) The story of Jacob and his sons.

4. The use of pictures illustrating the above, as part of the school equipment.

**Form II.*

1. Stories of pioneer life in the school localities.

2. Biographical sketches of discoverers and early explorers of
(a) Canada: The Cabots, Cartier, Champlain, Brébeuf, Lalemant,

*Form II. and Form III. together to be considered as the work for two school years, the unfinished portions of Form II. to be taken the following year.

La Salle, Frontenac, Fraser, Thompson, Henry, Iberville, Cook, Vancouver, Mackenzie, Selkirk; (b) American Continent: The Norsemen, Columbus, Magellan, Cortes, DeSoto, Drake.

3. Stories of the Ancient World: Egypt, Assyria, Babylonia, Persia, Macedonia, Greece, Rome.

4. Biblical Biographies—Moses, Joshua, Samuel, Saul, David, Solomon.

5. The use of pictures, as in Form I.

Form III.

1. Biographical sketches as in Form II. (continued).

2. Short connected stories of the early history of Canada, until the Capture of Quebec (1759).

3. Short stories of the early history of Britain until the Norman Conquest (MacMillan's History Readers, or Arnold's Britannia Series recommended for use at least by teachers).

4. A few lessons on the rise and fall of the Kingdom of Israel (MacLear's Old Testament History Primer recommended for use by teachers).

5. Table of important dates.

6. Pictures to illustrate the course.

Form IV.

1. Leading events in Canadian History, especially since the capture of Quebec (1759).

2. Leading events in British History.

3. Biographical Sketches of Wolsey; Elizabeth, Shakespeare, Cromwell, Robert Walpole, the Pitts, Montcalm, Frederic the Great, Hastings, Jervis, Nelson, Wellington, Washington, Lincoln, Peel, Stephenson, Howard, Rowland Hill.

4. Makers of the British Empire:

(a) India: Clive, Hastings, Lawrence, Havelock.

(b) Canada: Wolfe, Carleton, Brock, Elgin, Macdonald.

(c) Australasia: Cook, Phillip.

(d) South Africa: Bartle Frere.

5. Table of important dates.

6. The elements of Civil Government, following the syllabus in use in the Toronto Schools, modified to suit the municipality:

Jr. Fourth.—Municipal Government :

(a) The Election of the School Board, the Council, and the Mayor or Reeve.

(b) The Departments of City Service: Police, Assessment, the Engineer's Department, the Treasurer's Department, the Board of Works, &c.

(c) Taxes: Why levied? How collected?

Sr. Fourth.—The Government of the Province :

(a) The election of Members of the Legislature.

(b) The appointment of the Lieutenant-Governor.

(c) The selection of Premier.

(d) The organization of the Government.

(e) The tenure of office of the Government.

(f) Forms of Government in other Provinces.

(g) The division of the Province into Counties, of Counties into Townships, of Townships into School Sections.

Form V.

1. Political History of Canada.

2. English History with special reference to the progress of civilization.

3. Civil Government as in Form IV. (continued):—

The Government of the Dominion :

(a) The election of members of Parliament.

(b) The appointment of the Governor-General.

(c) The power of the Governor-General.

(d) The House of Commons and the Senate.

(e) The relationship of Canada to the Motherland.

(f) The King, the Commons, and the Lords.

General Recommendations.

1. All Biographical Sketches to be used by the pupils as subject matter for practice in English Composition.

2. Study of the Union Jack and of our Canadian Flag; of our National and Provincial Emblems; of Coats of Arms of the Dominion and of the Provinces.

3. Calling attention to the great events of Canadian History on the anniversary of their occurrence.

4. The study of the geographical position of all the places mentioned in the course should be a prominent feature of the teaching.

An effort therefore should be made to have the pupil understand as early as possible how to read a map so as to grasp the position and extent of the British Empire and its most important parts.

ILLUSTRATIONS.

Form I.

1. Portraits of the principal Indian chiefs: Brant, Pontiac, Tecumseh, Red Jacket, etc. Objects illustrating the mode of life of the Indian tribes, such as their religion, their houses, clothing, cooking utensils, sports, games, weapons of the chase and war, fishing tackle, smoking pipes, etc. If the objects are not attainable, pictures of them should be used.

Portraits of the Eskimos, objects and pictures illustrating their habits, mode of living, etc.

2. Pictures of the ancient Britons, Boadicea, Caractacus, etc.

Pictures illustrating their mode of life, religion; Stonehenge, Dover Cliffs, Landing of Cæsar.

The illustrations for Forms III., IV. and V. will comprise portraits of the principal personages named, pictures commemorating the great events in our history: the monuments; our legislative halls; the municipal buildings; the Fathers of Confederation; our educational buildings; the insignia of our provinces, of the Dominion, and of the British Empire.

HIGH SCHOOL COURSE.

Lower School.

1, 2, 3. [As in Form V., Public School Course.]

4. Greek and Roman Historical Readers.

5. 50 dates in Greek and Roman history.

Middle School.

1. British history from the discovery of America to the present time.

2. The Beginnings of civilization—Egypt, the Asiatic Nations (as in Botsford's Ancient History for Beginners, or in Sanderson's Outlines of the World's History, Part I.).

3. The outlines of Grecian history until it merges into the history of Rome; history of Rome until 476 A.D.

Upper School.

1. More intensive study of Canadian History.

Topics suggested:

The gradual discovery of America (from the Norsemen to Sir Alexander Mackenzie, Stuart, Fraser and Dawson).

Champlain, the explorer, the founder, the author.

French Exploration.

British Exploration.

The North American Indians.

The Early French Trading Companies.

The Hudson's Bay Company.

The North-West Company.

The Jesuits.

La Salle.

Frontenac.

Sir William Johnson.

How Canada became British.

Pontiac.

The term "Canada."

The U. E. Loyalists in their old and their new homes.

The War of 1812.

The Various Accessions to the Population of Ontario by Immigration.

The Exploration of Sub-arctic Canada.

Rebellion in the Canadas.

Lord Durham's Report.

The history of the Maritime Provinces and of British Columbia before 1867.

The Confederation movement in United Canada and in the Maritime Provinces.

Federal Systems.

History of our boundary line.

The North-West Rebellions.

Invasions and Raids from the United States.

Early Routes of Travel and Transportation; the development of our railways and canals.

The Educational System of Ontario.

2. Ancient History: (review of Form II.)

3. Mediæval history; modern history of Europe and America.

4. Sketch of the history of the other colonies and dependencies of the British Empire.

J. S. CARSTAIRS, *Secretary.*

MINUTES OF COMMERCIAL SECTION.

TORONTO, TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1903.

Meeting opened at 2 p.m., with the Vice-President, Mr. J. A. Harper, in the chair.

The Minutes for 1902 were read and approved.

After a few introductory remarks by the Chairman, a paper was read by Mr. W. H. Shaw, on "The Condition of Writing in our Schools, and How to Remedy It." An interesting discussion followed, led by Messrs. J. B. McKay, Principal Macaulay, of Westmount Academy, and other teachers of the art.

Mr. G. L. Johnston was appointed Press Reporter.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

Meeting opened at 10 a.m., Vice-President in the chair.

The Misses Stone and Parlee were appointed auditors.

"Some Advantages and Disadvantages of Modern Methods in Accounting" was taken by Mr. A. S. Laing.

"Possibilities in Typewriting" was illustrated by Messrs. Newsome and Gilbert.

"Regulations for a two years' Commercial Course" was the subject of discussion, led by Mr. R. H. Eldon, B.A.

The Section then appointed a committee to place its views before the proper authorities.

"Company Balance Sheets" made an interesting theme for a paper by J. W. Westervelt, Jr., C.A.

The Auditors' report was received and adopted.

The election of officers for 1904 resulted as follows:

<i>President,</i>	-	-	Mr. J. S. Harper.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	-	Mr. C. E. Race.
<i>Secretary,</i>	-	-	Mr. A. S. Laing, St. Catharines.
<i>Councillors,</i>	-	-	Messrs. R. H. Eldon, W. E. Evans, J. A. Dickenson, W. P. Dandy, G. L. Johnston and L. W. Taylor.

A vote of thanks was tendered the retiring secretary and other officers.

On motion, the meeting then adjourned.

CECIL E. RACE, *Secretary.*

MINUTES OF THE PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, APRIL 14TH, 1903.

The Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in the West Hall of Toronto University at 10 a.m., President E. W. Bruce, M.A., in the chair.

Rev. C. A. Seager opened the proceedings with the reading of Psalm i. and prayer.

Mr. R. M. Speirs, Toronto, was appointed Minute Secretary, and Mr. R. G. Elliott, Toronto, Press Secretary.

On motion by Messrs. Bennett and Young, the minutes of last meeting, as printed in the Annual Report, were confirmed without reading.

Mr. R. A. Ward, Toronto, Treasurer, presented unpaid accounts amounting to \$25.25.

This report, on motion, was referred to the auditors, and if accounts were found correct, to be paid.

The Treasurer then gave his report showing a deficit of \$21.50. After a long discussion the report was adopted, on motion, by Messrs. Ward and McAllister.

Mr. Jos. Bennett and Mr. S. McAllister were appointed auditors for the current year.

A special committee was named to nominate committees on Resolutions and Regulations:

Messrs. Musgrove, Jordan and McMillan.

The Secretary's report, read by Mr. Weidenhammer, was then received and adopted.

The Secretary then read the report of the Committee on Resolutions who interviewed the Minister of Education. On motion by Mr. J. Bennett and Mr. W. D. Spence this report was received and handed to the new Committee on Resolutions.

The report of the Committee on Entrance Examinations was read by Mr. E. T. Young. Their conclusions were: (1) Results are unsatisfactory. (2) The curriculum is too extensive. (3) There are too many subjects for written examination. (4) That reading should have a specified time on the time-table for examination. (5) That the marks assigned to the various subjects need re-adjusting.

On motion by Messrs. E. T. Young and J. A. Hill the report was received.

Notices of motion were then read by the Secretary.

The Special Committee reported as follows :

Committee on draft of New Regulations :

Mr. D. Young, Guelph; Mr. E. Ward, Collingwood; Mr. A. Burchill, Prescott; Mr. W. D. Spence, St. Mary's; Mr. A. McMillan Toronto.

Committee on Resolutions :

Mr. S. McAllister, Toronto; Mr. Ward, Mr. Linton, Mr. McIntosh, Mr. Anderson.

It was moved by Mr. J. Bennett, and seconded by Mr. Musgrove, that this report be adopted. Carried.

Meeting adjourned at 12 a.m.

TUESDAY AFTERNOON SESSION.

A joint meeting of the Public School and Training Departments was held. Mr. F. W. Merchant in the chair.

Rev. W. H. Colles, of Chatham, read an interesting paper advocating that Rural School Boards consist of six, instead of three, members as at present. A motion to that effect was carried. (See p. 42.)

Mr. W. A. Dent addressed the meeting on the subject "Canadian Birds," a few stuffed specimens of which he exhibited. The results of a study along this line he claimed: (1) Lessening the wanton destruction of eggs and beneficial birds. (2) Correcting misconceptions regarding many, such as owls, hawks, etc. (3) Intangible results, culture value.

Dr. Harper, of Quebec, gave a short address on "Moral Training," and referred to a useful chart which he has prepared on the Ten Commandments.

W. S. Ellis, B.A., Kingston, spoke on "Nature Study," offering many valuable suggestions. He hoped that steps would be taken by the Education Department to appoint officers to meet teachers and others interested in the various towns of Ontario in order to arouse an enthusiasm in this new field of educational work.

Meeting adjourned at 4.30 p.m.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1903.

Rev. Mr. Courtice was introduced by President Bruce, and opened the meeting with reading of I. Thess. v. and prayer.

The minutes of Tuesday's proceedings were read and adopted.

Mr. Carstairs asked leave to report on behalf of the Committee on History. On motion of Messrs. Moore and Weidenhammer his request was granted, the report to be given on Thursday at 11 a.m.

Mr. McAllister presented the Auditors' Report, showing the actual deficit to be \$11.50. The report was received, and on motion, by Mr. McAllister and Mr. Fraser, it was adopted after adding, "That in future our Treasurer be a member of the Executive Committee."

It was moved by Mr. W. D. Spence, seconded by Mr. W. Moore, that this department take up Mr. Spence's time on the programme considering the Report of the Committee which was appointed to consider the organization of a committee on resolutions and of the Educational Council. Carried.

Mr. Jos. Bennett gave a well-prepared paper on "Technical Grammar," urging several objections to such on the Public School curriculum.

Mr. Young moved, seconded by Mr. McMillan, that the discussion of this paper be left over till after Mr. Ward's paper. Carried.

Mr. E. Ward, Collingwood, then read his paper "Criticism of the New Public School Grammar." He pointed out much that will have to be unlearned by a student entering a High School, and concluded with the benefits to be derived from the study of grammar.

The recommendations of the Committee on Resolutions were then read by Mr. W. D. Spence, and discussed clause by clause.

On motion by Mr. Putman and Mr. D. Young, the clauses as amended were adopted, as follows:

(a) That a General Committee of the Ontario Educational Association be appointed, consisting of four representatives from the Public School Department, four from the College and High School Department, two from the Trustees' Department, two from the Inspectors' Department, two from the Training Department, and one from the Kindergarten Department.

(b) That these representatives be elected at the Easter meeting of the Ontario Educational Association each year by the various departments.

(c) That the functions of the Committee shall be to consider all resolutions of the general association, or of any of its departments, or of any local association through its department, and to make such recommendations to the Minister of Education, or representations to the Legislature regarding them, as it may deem expedient.

(d) That this committee shall meet at 10 a.m. on the day following the Easter meeting of the Ontario Educational Association, and at any other time at the call of the Chairman on the request of three members.

(e) That the travelling expenses of delegates to special meetings be paid by the General Association.

Mr. McAllister and Mr. Putman were named to take charge of these recommendations at the meeting of the General Association.

The election of officers for the ensuing year then took place, and resulted as follows :

<i>President,</i>	-	-	Mr. A. Weidenhammer, Waterloo.
<i>Vice-President,</i>	-	-	Mr. C. G. Fraser, Toronto.
<i>Secretary,</i>	-	-	Mr. W. D. Spence, St. Mary's.
<i>Director,</i>	-	-	Mr. Jos. Bennett, Toronto.
<i>Treasurer,</i>	-	-	Mr. R. A. Ward, Toronto.

Executive Committee—Mr. Putman, Ottawa; Mr. Ward, Collingwood; Mr. Gray, Toronto.

Mr. Spence gave notice of motion regarding qualification for Public School Inspectors' Certificates.

Meeting adjourned at 12.10 p.m.

WEDNESDAY AFTERNOON SESSION.

A joint meeting of Public School, Trustees', and Training Departments. Mr. Bruce in the chair.

Mr. Jas. L. Hughes gave a short talk on "Pictures on the Walls." He said that the revelations got by the ancients were stored in some form—music, literature, or art; and that the greatest thing one can do is to kindle some one along some line of expression. Several pictures kindly loaned by the Central League of School Art had been taken down the evening before, and were not in place for this lecture. This was deeply regretted.

Mr. M. Parkinson gave a very interesting paper on "Centralization of Rural Public Schools."

Mr. Groves moved, seconded by Mr. White, that the thanks of this association be tendered to Mr. Parkinson, and that Mr. Parkinson be requested to prepare a synopsis of his paper to be published, in the Minutes. Carried.

Mr. L. T. Lochhead, M.A., introduced the subject, "Incorporation of the Teachers of Ontario under a Charter along similar lines to that of the Law Society," He says the proposal has been indorsed

by more than twenty county associations, that the objects it is expected to secure are: Higher salaries, insurance, superannuation, circulating libraries, control of entrance to the profession, etc.

Dr. Park, of Uxbridge, followed, but was compelled to postpone his remarks to allow the next paper its proper time.

Vice-Principal Elliott, of Toronto Normal School, then read a paper on "How can We Best Improve the County Model Schools." Many valuable suggestions were given; and, as a result,

Mr. McAllister moved, seconded by Mr. D. Young, that this paper, so heartily received, be printed in the Minutes. Carried.

Mr. Silcox moved, seconded by Mr. Moore, that Mr. Elliott draft resolutions along such lines to be presented to the Minister of Education. Carried.

This was done (see p. 43), and adjournment took place about 4.30 p.m.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1903.

This department resumed its work in the East Hall.

Rev. Mr. Freeman opened proceedings by reading from the Twentieth Century Testament the eighth chapter of Luke and by prayer.

The minutes of Wednesday's sessions were read and adopted.

Mr. Shaw of the Central Business College, Toronto, read a paper on "Writing."

Mr. Bennett moved, seconded by Mr. McMillan, that the thanks of this Association be tendered Mr. Shaw for his valuable paper, and that Mr. Shaw allow his paper to be published in the Minutes. Carried.

Many questions were asked Mr. Shaw during the discussion which followed.

This department then retired to the West Hall to hear Mr. Merchant's paper on "The Relative Value to the Public School Teachers of the Different Subjects on the High School Programme."

At 11.20 a.m. this department re-assembled in the East Hall, when Professor Wrong moved, seconded by Mr. Carstairs, that the printed report of the Committee on History be received. Carried.

A long discussion followed by Mr. J. O. Miller, Mr. C. G. Fraser, E. T. Young and others, after which the following motion carried: That the general principles of the report be approved, and that the report itself be forwarded to the Committee appointed to consider the Curriculum for High and Public Schools.

Mr. E. T. Young read the Report of the Committee on Teachers' Union, which report was received and adopted. This report was discussed by Messrs. Spence, Young, Gray and Linton.

The report closed with: We respectfully recommend that this department of the Ontario Educational Association place on record its approval: (1) That an organization of the teachers of the Province be instituted under Provincial Charter for the purpose of mutual protection along the line of professional assistance and advancement. (2) Of the adoption of a provincial system of superannuation under direction of and maintained by the whole teaching body of Ontario and aided by the State.

Mr. Young moved, seconded by Mr. McAllister, that the following be a special committee to consider this and report on some plan of organization at next meeting: Dr. Park, Messrs. Linton, McMillan, Moore (Dundas), Fraser, E. T. Young, L. T. Lochhead and W. D. Spence. Carried.

Meeting adjourned at 12.15 p.m.

THURSDAY AFTERNOON.

Resumed work at 2.15 p.m.

Mr. A. Weidenhammer read a paper on "The Qualification of Public School Inspectors."

Mr. W. F. Moore moved, seconded by Mr. Fraser, That the paper be published in the minutes. Carried.

Mr. W. D. Spence read the Report of the Committee on Draft of Proposed Regulations, which report was received.

We have read together all the proposed regulations affecting the different forms of the Public School Course, but feel that through lack of time to fully consider each part, that we must report, except in a few instances, along general lines:

1. We approve of the general trend of the proposed draft, although we consider that the new subjects introduced, when compared with relief afforded in subjects previously on the course of studies, are too extensive.

2. We are of opinion that the following subjects in Forms I., II., III. and IV. cover, on the whole, too much ground, in view of the time likely to be available: Color and Art, Constructive Work, Mechanical Drawing, and Nature Study.

3. We would recommend that music be made obligatory in all forms where it is mentioned.

4. As to Form I. We recommend that penmanship be changed to read as follows: Instructions and practice in position and in movement at seats and at blackboard; elementary exercises in movement, writing of small letters, figures and capital letters on paper.

5. As to Form III. Geography.—We think the work under “the earth, as a whole,” is too extensive, and in second paragraph would strike out “South America.”

6. Form IV. Grammar.—We understand ‘simple’ to mean ‘easy,’ and to include complex and compound sentences.

7. Form IV. Geography.—Under Eurasia strike out the words “and south,” to agree with our previous recommendation, and place the words “South America” before Africa.

8. Form V. History.—We approve of this draft but would recommend that it be given in further detail and in line with the recommendations of the Committee on History as presented this morning.

9. We also recommend that an option be allowed between the commercial subjects, on the one hand, and certain subjects adequately equivalent in the remainder of the obligatory course, as provided for in High School Course, Sec. iii., Sub-sec. 3, page 17, such as History, Technical Grammar, Elementary Science.

10. In Form V. We consider the work under Color and Art, Construction Work and Household Science, Geography and Elementary Science as too extensive and likely to occupy too much time as at present outlined.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

D. YOUNG, *Chairman*.

W. D. SPENCE, *Secretary*.

On motion, by Messrs. Linton and Fraser, the above was finally adopted, two amendments, by Messrs. Bennett and Gray, being lost—

- (1) That the section in Form III. on Composition be struck out.
- (2) That the section in Form IV. on Grammar be struck out.

On motion, by Mr. Ward and Mr. McAllister, the Committee on Proposed Draft of New Regulations was re-appointed—Messrs. D. Young, E. Ward, Burchill, W. D. Spence and A. McMillan.

Mr. Gray moved, seconded by Mr. Moore, That the new Executive Committee try to secure the papers of Mr. Beatty and Mr. Jordan for next year, if possible. Carried.

Mr. Ward moved, seconded by Mr. Eadie, That Reading, Writing, Composition and Spelling be put more nearly on a par with Arithmetic in examinations. Carried.

Moved by Mr. A. Weidenhammer, seconded by Mr. W. F. Moore, That the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association appreciate the kindness of Principal Gordon and the authorities of Queen's University, Kingston, in extending an invitation to the Ontario Educational Association to hold their next annual meeting at Queen's University, and desire to thank them very heartily for their kindness, but fear that it would materially affect the attendance at our meetings and consequently interfere with the good representation of all classes of teachers hitherto assembled here, and as the Public School Department is the largest department numerically of the Ontario Educational Association it would be the one to suffer most by any change of location. Carried.

On motion, by Mr. Young and Mr. Bennett, the Committee on Resolutions was appointed: Mr. Norman F. Black, Lindsay; Mr. E. W. Bruce, Toronto; Mr. W. Linton, Galt; and Mr. D. Young, Guelph.

The following were appointed as our representatives on the Educational Council, should such new recommendation become law: Messrs. Moore (Dundas), Bruce, McMillan, McAllister, Spence, Weidenhammer and D. Young.

Moved by Mr. A. Weidenhammer, seconded by Mr. W. D. Spence, that Specialists' and Public School Inspectors' certificates be granted as previous to 1897, and that for Public School Inspectors' certificates an experience of ten years' teaching be required, at least five of which have been in a Public School. Carried.

Mr. R. A. Ward moved, seconded by W. F. Moore, That this department expresses its appreciation to the Central League of School Art for pictures loaned, and that any expenses incurred be paid. Carried.

Moved by W. D. Spence, seconded by Mr. J. Bennett, That the Treasurer, Minute Secretary and Press Secretary be paid \$2 each. Carried.

On motion of Messrs. McMillan and D. Young a vote of thanks was tendered the retiring officers for their efficient services.

Meeting adjourned at 4.40 p.m., after singing "God Save the King."

Moved by Rev. W. H. Colles, seconded by Mr. E. W. Bruce, That, in the opinion of the Public School and Training Departments of

the Ontario Educational Association, it is desirable that Boards of Rural School Trustees consist of six members instead of three, two to be elected each year, one at least of whom must be a ratepayer, having one or more children attending the school. Carried.

Motion by T. Moir and S. Silcox: (1) That the term of the Model School should be lengthened to at least eight months. (2) That the Principal should be supervisor of the schools of the centre in which the Model School is situated, and should be relieved of all other class work. That he should hold a first-class certificate and have at least four years' experience as principal of a Public School. (3) That the number of Model Schools should be materially reduced by a redistribution of Model School districts, and that the Legislative grant to these schools be doubled. (4) That a copy of this be sent to the Minister of Education. Carried.

SECRETARY'S REPORT.

Mr. President, Ladies and Gentlemen :

I have endeavored to make my report as brief as possible. The first work of your Secretary, after the close of the session a year ago, was to get the minutes and the papers read before this department ready for the printer. This was done with tolerable satisfaction, but, I regret that, owing to the hurried way in which the closing business was gone through on the last afternoon, several slight errors, such as the wrong name for a seconder to one or two motions, crept into the minutes. For these I tender my apologies. As far as I know all the papers recommended for publication in the minutes were printed.

Through some misunderstanding the resolutions of this department were not printed with the minutes, but, according to my instructions, I had six thousand copies printed later on at a cost of \$10.50. These I sent to the Inspectors of the province in lots of fifty to one hundred, with instructions to report to me after the county conventions had been held, but not a dozen have done so. It seems to me worse than useless for this department to expend annually \$12 to \$15 for printing and distributing these resolutions, according to our present system, and then secure, at the best, a dozen reports. In looking over the reports of my predecessors I find the same complaint. It seems to me, that if the delegates of the various conventions represented here would bring this matter before their local associations and urge their secretaries to send in a

report to the Secretary of the Public School Department, the result would be more satisfactory.

Again, if we had some means of learning the addresses of the Secretaries of the local associations throughout the Province, so that we could send the copies of the resolutions directly to them, instead of to the Inspectors, the result might be more satisfactory. I have thought that every delegate should be requested to hand the name and address of the secretary of the association he or she represents to the Secretary of this department, and I believe it would help us to secure a better distribution. At any rate, I have reason to believe that many parcels, sent out annually, never leave the Inspector's office.

One unfortunate mistake occurred in connection with the printing of the resolutions. A resolution forwarded by the East Lindsay Teachers' Association through Mr. Black, was on motion of Messrs. Hill and Smith to have been printed at the expense of the Association and distributed with the other resolutions. Unfortunately, no copy of the resolution was handed to me, and as my copy of the minutes was sent to the printer at Toronto, and no copy returned to me until long after the resolutions in my hand had been printed and distributed, I was not made aware of the omission until two or three weeks ago. As the fault was not mine, I do not know for whom to apologize, but I feel convinced that whoever is to blame for it, will be able to explain that it was a purely accidental, and certainly an unintentional omission.

The most difficult part of your Secretary's work was the preparation of the programme, but with the help of your President, and the other officers of this department, the work was accomplished within the specified time, and we trust that your verdict on this year's "mental bill of fare" will be as favorable as it has been on former occasions.

A. WEIDENHAMMER,
Secretary P.S. Dept.

Report of the Committee appointed to present the Resolutions of the Public School Department to the Honorable the Minister of Education :

By appointment, your Committee waited on the Minister on December 6th, 1902.

The following members were present :

S. McAllister, E. W. Bruce, J. A. Hill, G. K. Powell and S. H. Jeffery.

Resolutions 18 to 23, not being relevant, were not considered.

1. Personally the Minister was in favor of raising the age limit.

2. The Normal School term is now extended to one year, and the Minister expressed himself in favor of extending the training term in the Model School and of improving the present Model School system. Should this be done, the age at which teachers may begin to teach would be raised one year at least.

3. This resolution is open to debate, but the Minister promised to consider it.

4. Latin is not compulsory now for the Junior Leaving. As to Senior Leaving, the Minister promised to consider special cases, and to make concessions in the cases of those who have been teaching some years, and are remaining in the profession and wish to better their academic qualification.

5. The Minister promised to take this into his most serious consideration.

6. The Minister is willing to concede this. The Public School Department is to recommend a list of names of teachers to him. He wishes Toronto to have one, Ontario, west of Toronto, one, and Ontario, east of Toronto, one.

7. This is optional now with the Institutes, to do so if they wish.

8. He promised to consider this. He thought it a good subject for the Trustees' Department to discuss, and that the consolidation of the Rural Schools would settle the matter.

9-10. He promised to take steps to have a better book authorized, and is anxious to have the Teachers' Associations recommend the best book.

11. He is favorably disposed towards this resolution and said the metric system was coming.

12-13. Very few have advocated the use of the Bible as a textbook to the department, but he was favorable to No. 13.

14. The six months' limit before authorization, now enables all these departments to make representations to the Education Department as to text-books to be authorized after this.

15. The Minister believes that children should attend the Public Schools for a longer period than they do at present.

16-17. He took a favorable memorandum of these resolutions, and promised to consider them.

Your Committee desires to place on record their thanks for the courteous reception they received from the Minister and for the due

consideration accorded to the resolutions coming from this department of the Ontario Educational Association.

(Signed) S. McALLISTER.
E. W. BRUCE.
J. A. HILL.
G. K. POWELL.
S. H. JEFFERY.

Resolutions Adopted by the Public School Department of the Ontario Educational Association at the Easter meeting, 1903:

1. That no certificate to teach be granted to any person under twenty-one years of age.

2 (a) That the term of the Model School be extended to at least eight months.

(b) That the Principal should be supervisor of the schools of the centre in which the Model School is situated, and should be relieved of all other class work. That he should hold a First-class Certificate, and have at least four years' experience as Principal of a Public School.

(c) That the number of Model Schools should be materially reduced by a redistribution of Model School districts, and that the Legislative Grant to these schools be doubled.

3. That graduates of the Normal College, who have not been trained at a Normal or Model School, should not be permitted to teach in a Public School.

4. (a) That an organization of the Teachers of the Province be instituted under Provincial Charter for the purpose of mutual protection and advancement.

(b) That a provincial system of superannuation be adopted, under direction of and maintained by the whole teaching body of the Province and aided by the State.

5. That Latin be not, as now, a compulsory subject for Junior and Senior Leaving certificates, but that the options be the same as they were before Latin was made compulsory.

6. That Specialists' Certificates and Public School Inspectors' Certificates be granted as previous to 1897, and that for the latter at least ten years' experience in teaching be required, of which at least five years shall have been in a Public School.

7. That the basis of apportionment of Legislative Grant be dependent upon the following :

- (a) Buildings and equipment.
- (b) Average attendance.
- (c) Amount of salary paid to teacher.
- (d) Qualification of teacher.

8. (a) That in the opinion of this department the present text-book in History is objectionable on account of the difficulty of the language.

(b) That the Education Department be requested to have a more suitable book prepared in the near future.

(c) That in preparing this new text-book in History, Public School teachers be consulted.

9. That with a view to the furthering of the introduction of the Metric system of Weights and Measures into practical use in Canada, it should form part of our Public School curriculum.

10. (a) That in the opinion of this department it is inadvisable to advocate the use of the Bible as a text-book in our Public Schools

(b) That selections from the Bible could be advantageously used in teaching History, Literature and Ethics.

11. That the Public School programme should be modified so that less time shall be devoted to the teaching of Arithmetic than obtains at present.

12. That the course in Drawing be definitely defined and shortened, and that only blank drawing books be authorized.

13. That Agriculture and Nature Study be taken incidentally in connection with kindred subjects, but that they be not subjects for examination.

14. That Reading, Writing, Composition and Spelling be put more nearly in equality with Arithmetic for examination.

15. That this department disapproves of the present regulation regarding Entrance Literature as covering too much ground, and recommend that the proportion of marks assigned to each part of the paper be as follows: Memory work, 10 per cent.; Prescribed lessons, 50 per cent.; Sight work, 40 per cent.

16. That the Entrance Examination paper in Grammar be so modified as to demand less instruction in technical terms.

17. That the Executive Committee be recommended to bring clearly before the County Associations the importance of a good attendance of the Public School teachers at the meetings of this department.

18. That each County Association be urged to send at least two duly accredited representatives each; and, further, we recommend that not both of these delegates be changed in any succeeding year.

19. That the County Association be requested to forward to the Minister of Education, to their representatives in the Legislature and to the Secretary of this department copies of all resolutions of a general character that may be passed at their meetings.

20. That this department communicate, by circular, with County Associations, to urge upon them to appoint a committee to interview the local members of the Legislature, to represent our claims to a fair representation on the Educational Council, using every effort to secure from him a promise of action at the next regular meeting of the Legislature.

MINUTES OF THE KINDERGARTEN DEPARTMENT.

TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1903.

The attendance in the Kindergarten Department was small, owing doubtless to the weather.

In her opening address the President, Miss Currie, urged the duty of each Froebel Society in the Province to aid in strengthening this department of the Ontario Educational Association.

Miss Laidlaw's paper on "The Kindergarten in Ontario" gave some interesting statistics. The system was first introduced into the schools in 1882. The first certificates were issued in June, 1887, when twenty Directors' and thirty Assistants' certificates were issued. Up to the present time 485 Directors' certificates have been issued, and 618 Assistants' certificates. There are now 120 public kindergartens in Ontario, with 250 teachers, and 11,300 children in attendance.

Miss McIntyre compared the statistics of American cities with those of Ontario, better provision being made for public kindergartens by Ontario cities than is made by American cities. Chicago, for instance, instead of 88 public kindergartens would need 600 to provide as well for her children as Toronto and London.

The Ontario statistics were unavoidably incomplete, but will be further added to during the year and reported upon next year.

The Kindergarten Department decided to ask for a representative on the Educational Council.

Moved by Miss M. E. McIntyre, seconded by Miss Adams, that in future the Secretary of the Department be empowered to use her judgment with regard to the expenses incurred by her in the work, and that the Department hold itself responsible for the necessary funds. Carried.

In the afternoon Mrs. Seymour, of the Chicago Kindergarten Institute, took for her subject, "The Conception of Music." Music has far too long been considered the exclusive possession of the technically trained musician, instead of being regarded as a universal language. A study of the world's greatest compositions shows their basis to be the folk-song, proving the vital relationship of music to the people, and not until it becomes a conscious language of the people can it be an educational power. The same principles should be applied in the study of music that are adhered to in other branches of education, self-expression being recognized as fundamental. Experience with large numbers of little children has shown that no child is musically incapable if developing methods of teaching music are employed. Music has three broad divisions for study—Rhythm, Melody and Harmony. Rhythm is a primitive means of expression and may exist apart from melody and harmony, each of which implies the other. Instead of many elaborate kindergarten songs, Mrs. Seymour advocated simple short melodies, illustrations being given of short melodies composed spontaneously by little children not specially musical. "Wild flowers, wild flowers, springing everywhere," "Gently rock my pretty boat." It was pointed out that great composers take one simple motive which is sustained and varied throughout an entire composition.

TORONTO, APRIL 15TH, 1903.

The main part of the morning session was occupied by Mrs. Seymour, who took for the subject of her second lecture "The Expression of Music," giving a brief history of its growth in form, staff-notation, etc. A student finds that much has been written on music by others than musicians, Plato, Shakespeare, Ruskin, etc.

The officers elected are :

<i>President,</i>	-	-	Miss L. P. Mackenzie, Brantford.
<i>Director,</i>	-	-	Miss Louise N. Currie, Toronto.
<i>Secretary,</i>	-	-	Miss Margaret Yellowlees, Toronto.

A vote of thanks was tendered the retiring Secretary.

In the afternoon Mrs. Seymour dealt with music in its relation to character-building. The relation of music to physical culture was demonstrated by a series of exercises accompanied by music. Judgment is needed to discover the special obstacle to the musical progress, and meet the need of the individual child. In the kindergarten the piano should not be used as a means of command. The children should feel that the piano is *speaking* to them.

TORONTO, APRIL 16TH, 1903.

Mrs. Seymour's subject for the morning session was "The Study of Music." We should study music as we do a poem, for its *thought*, and its *form*. A whole lesson is often given that does not require the use of the piano. In studying a composition the composer's theme is *the* question, not how we like it, nor who wrote it. Illustrations were given of the same song differently interpreted, and the point brought out that one may interpret music according to one's own conception. The numerous suggestions and illustrations left her hearers with the feeling that constant study of music is necessary for a kindergarten. This was voiced by Mrs. Hughes in moving a vote of thanks to Mrs. Seymour, which was heartily accorded.

In the afternoon Miss Downs and Miss Laidlaw gave some suggestions for the use of raffia, mentioning some simple uses (chiefly winding) for the kindergarten, and showing more difficult work for older grades and home occupation.

JEAN R. LAIDLAW.

MINUTES OF THE TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, APRIL 14TH, 1903.

The Training Department of the Ontario Educational Association met at 10.30 a.m. in Room 12, of Toronto University.

Principal Scott conducted the opening exercises by reading a portion of Scripture and Prayer.

Dr. Merchant, Principal of London Normal School, and Chairman of the Department, called the attention of the members to the draft of the New Regulations, pointing out the necessity of fixing upon some plan of getting the views of the profession before the Minister of Education. It was finally agreed to defer action until after the reading of Dr. Merchant's paper bearing on the matter.

In the absence of W. Wilson, J. Suddaby, of Berlin, was appointed Secretary.

Principal Scott, of Toronto Normal School, then followed with a paper on, "Are our Schools making good Citizens." This paper was full of interest to those present, and on motion of Messrs. Suddaby and Nethercott, was ordered to be printed in the Proceedings.

The meeting then adjourned.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH, 1903.

The Department met at 9 a.m., Dr. Merchant in the chair.

Dr. Goggin then followed with a very interesting address on "Some Problems in the Training of Teachers."

Discussion followed by Dr. Merchant, Mr. Tilley, Principal Scott, Dr. Sinclair, Mr. Jordan and Mr. Allan.

On motion of Dr. Sinclair and Mr. Jordan the thanks of the Department were extended to Dr. Goggin for his excellent address, and it was ordered to be printed in the Proceedings.

Mr. A. H. Abbot, B.A., then took up the subject of "Experimental Psychology," to the delight of all present.

He received a hearty vote of thanks, and an abstract of his address will appear in the Proceedings.

The election of officers for the ensuing year then took place, resulting as follows :

<i>Chairman,</i>	-	-	-	Mr. J. Suddaby, Berlin.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-			Mr. Wm. Wilson, Toronto Jct.
<i>Director,</i>	-	-	-	Vice-Principal Elliott, Toronto.

The meeting then adjourned.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH, 1903.

The Department met at 9 a.m., with Dr. Merchant presiding.

A committee, with Principal Scott as convener, was appointed to draft a resolution relative to the death of the late Principal McCabe.

Dr. Merchant and Mr. J. R. Stuart were also appointed a committee to consider the New Regulations.

Then followed a special meeting of the Model School Masters, at which a motion was passed to the effect that the present text-book in Psychology be discontinued and a new one substituted.

Inspector Tilley named the following committee to bring in a recommendation *re* a text-book suitable for Model Schools in Psychology :

Messrs. Groves, Wilson, Suddaby, Jordan, Broderick, Nethercott, Tilley and Dr. Silcox.

The meeting then adjourned to attend a joint-meeting of the Natural Science, Inspectors' and Public School Departments, to hear a paper on "The Relative Value to Public School Teachers of the Different Subjects on the High School Programme," read by Dr. Merchant.

The Convention of 1903 was then closed.

MINUTES OF THE INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

TORONTO, TUESDAY, APRIL 14TH, 1903.

The members of the Inspectors' Department of the Ontario Educational Association met in Room No. 12 of the Toronto University, April 14th, 1903, at 10 a.m.

Owing to illness the Chairman, Inspector R. Park, was unable to be present and on motion Inspector W. Gordon took the chair.

The session was opened with prayer by Inspector W. E. Tilley. Minutes of 1902 were read and confirmed.

Inspector J. J. Craig was appointed press reporter.

The report of committee appointed at last session to consider question of inspectors' salaries was brought in by Inspector J. H. Smith. He also presented for approval a memorial on the subject to the Minister of Education.

Moved by Inspector J. H. Smith, seconded by Inspector J. E. Tom, that the report be adopted and that the memorial be considered clause by clause. Carried.

Every clause was closely scrutinized, and the noon hour came all too soon to finish this important work.

On resuming at 2 p.m. Inspector W. F. Chapman spoke on the subject, "Should Pupils have Home Work? Kind? Amount?" An animated discussion followed, in which nearly all the inspectors took part.

The newly appointed inspectors, Messrs. Chisholm, Stevens and Standing, were introduced to the members and right royally welcomed.

Inspector W. J. Summerby read a valuable paper on "Phonics and Phonic Primers." Though his paper was brief he dealt with the subject in such a manner as to merit the approval of all present.

Inspector W. Johnson followed with a paper on "The Pedagogical value of Psychology." A hearty vote of thanks was tendered Inspector Johnson, and his paper ordered to be embodied in the Proceedings.

On motion it was agreed to hold the next session in Mr. McIntosh's room in the Normal School.

WEDNESDAY, APRIL 15TH.

Session opened at 9.30 a.m.

Inspector Fotheringham conducted the opening exercises.

The question of the memorial to the Minister of Education was brought up again by Inspector J. H. Smith. Discussion followed by Inspectors Fotheringham, Campbell, McDiarmid, Michel, Cowley, J. J. Craig, Clendenning, W. Johnston, Knight and others.

Moved by Inspector Michel, seconded by Inspector N. Campbell, that section 6, paragraph 4, be struck out, and the following substituted: "That the County Council shall pay at least \$3 per school and department for travelling expenses."

This amendment was carried unanimously and on motion the memorial as amended was adopted and the chairman and secretary authorized to affix their signatures to the same.

Inspector Smith retired to interview the Minister of Education.

Discussion of Teachers' Professional Examination, as laid down in draft submitted by Minister of Education, followed, and it was moved by Inspector Moshier, seconded by Inspector Mackintosh, that the Inspectors' Department, while fully recognizing the value of a classical course of study, approve of the following principles as embodied in the draft of the proposed course of study:

1. The separation of the Teachers' non-professional examination from the matriculation examination.

2. The abolition of all options in the junior non-professional examination.

3. The abolition of Latin and foreign languages in said junior non-professional Teachers' examination.

- 4 The division of said examination into two parts. Part I.—Of non-examination subjects. Part II.—Examination subjects.

Clauses 1, 2 and 4 were carried.

A very lively discussion took place over clause 3, but before reaching any decision Inspector J. H. Smith returned from interviewing the Minister of Education, and on motion it was agreed to meet the Minister of Education at 3 p.m. in the Parliament Buildings.

On resuming at 2 o'clock in Room 12 in the University, Thomas Bengough, C.S.R., read an interesting and instructive paper on "Left Hand Writing and Drawing." This paper was illustrated by the accomplished son of Mr. Bengough.

A hearty vote of thanks was tendered to Mr. Bengough, and the essay was ordered to be embodied in the Proceedings.

The Inspectors, to the number of forty-five now visited the Parliament Buildings and interviewed the Minister of Education *re* increase of salary. Inspector R. H. Cowley introduced the deputation and explained in a calm judicial manner the main features of the memorial. Inspectors J. J. Craig, Fotheringham and McBrien emphasized the necessity of an increase. The Hon. R. Harcourt in a most courteous manner replied and assured all present of his sympathy with the memorial and promised to lay the matter before his colleagues.

On returning to the University further discussion took place on clause 3 of Inspector Moshier's motion.

Moved by Inspector W. E. Tilley, seconded by Inspector Robb, that clause 3 be struck out and that the subject of Latin be added to Part I. of the junior non-professional examination for teachers. Carried.

Moved by Inspector W. E. Tilley, seconded by Inspector McBrien, that the motion as amended be now adopted as a whole. Carried.

Moved by Inspector W. E. Tilley, seconded by Inspector Knight, that in line 1, section 4, page 35 of draft, the words "High" before school and "High School or other" before inspector be struck out. Carried.

On motion Inspectors MacKintosh and Robb were appointed the Inspectors' representatives on the committee to report on draft of proposed changes of Public and High School course of study and organization.

THURSDAY, APRIL 16TH.

The Department resumed work at 9.30 a.m.

Inspector Deacon conducted the opening exercises.

The election of officers resulted as follows:

<i>President,</i>	-	-	-	-	-	J. Elgin Tom, Goderich.
<i>Director,</i>	-	-	-	-	-	C. A. Barnes, London.
<i>Secretary,</i>	-	-	-	-	-	John Connolly, Brockville.

Moved by Inspector F. L. Michel, seconded by Inspector D. McDiarmid, that Inspectors J. C. Brown, Knight and Summerby be a committee to draft a resolution of condolence to the widow and family of the late Henry Reazin, Inspector of Schools for West Victoria. Carried.

Moved by Inspector W. W. Ireland, seconded by Inspector F. L. Michel,

1. That we approve of the proposed changes in regard to entrance examination, but would add Mental Arithmetic to Part II.

2. That we approve of the introduction of Nature Study, but that the character and amount of work to be done be left largely in the hands of the inspectors and teachers.

3. That we approve of the introduction of Manual Training. Carried.

Moved by Inspector Houston, seconded by Inspector Mackintosh, that this department approves of the revised programme and regulations for Local (District) Examinations. Carried.

Meeting adjourned to hear Principal Merchant's paper.

On resuming at 2 o'clock Inspector Deacon read a paper on "Should Teachers form Unions." This was a really helpful paper on a vexed question, and it was ordered to be embodied in Proceedings.

Inspector J. Elgin Tom read a paper on, "In Graded Schools can more efficient work be done with two classes in a room than with one?" Discussion followed, in which Inspectors Houston, Mackintosh, Connolly, Chapman, Brown, Kinney, Moshier, Clendenning and Cowley took part. The paper was ordered to be embodied in the Proceedings.

"A Lesson" (First Book) was taken up by Inspector J. Coyle Brown. His address was marked by enthusiasm and a masterly appreciation of the difficulties of the primary teacher. Inspectors Summerby, Odell, Connolly and Knight took part in the discussion.

On motion the Secretary was instructed to send a copy of resolution of condolence, as read by Inspector Knight, to the widow of the late Henry Reazin.

A hearty vote of thanks was tendered the Chairman and Secretary.

Department adjourned.

NATHANIEL GORDON, *Chairman.*

JOHN CONNOLLY, *Secretary.*

MINUTES OF THE TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

FIRST SESSION—TUESDAY, 14TH APRIL, 1903.

The Seventeenth Annual Convention of the Public and High School Trustees of Ontario began at University College, Toronto, at 2 p.m.

After the registration of delegates, the President, John Anderson, Esq., took the chair.

Mr. Elliott, of Kingston, and Mr. Leitch, of Brantford, were appointed to report to the press the daily proceedings.

The Minutes of the Proceedings of this Department, 1st, 2nd and 3rd April, 1902, as printed in pamphlets, were taken as read, and upon motion were adopted.

Mr. C. W. Kelly, of Guelph, and Mr. John McLaren, of Orangeville, were appointed Auditors.

The following report of the Treasurer was read, received and referred to the Auditors :

TREASURER'S REPORT, A.D. 1903.

Bills and accounts to date all are settled, leaving as balance in hand \$73.39.

SUMMARY.

RECEIPTS.

Balance from Audit of April, 1902.....	\$60 10
Paid in by Boards and Delegates	115 75
Legislative grant.....	50 00
Total.....	\$225 85

EXPENDITURE.

Fees paid to Ontario Educational Association.....	\$30 00
Printing pamphlets and circulars	46 25
Distribution of pamphlets, letters and circulars.....	16 21
Salary.....	60 00
Total	\$152 46
Balance, \$73.39.	

GEO. ANSON AYLESWORTH,
Treasurer Trustees' Association.

Newburgh, 7th April, 1903.

Correspondence was received :

First—Welcoming this Association to the University.

Second—Expressing the disappointment and regret of Mr. J. B. Fairbairn, Bowmanville, at his unavoidable absence, his hopes for a profitable convention, and his wish to be remembered, especially to President Anderson.

Third—

DEPARTMENT OF MILITIA AND DEFENCE.

OTTAWA, 25th September, 1902.

SIR,—I have your letter of the 20th instant, enclosing memorial adopted by the Provincial Association of Public and High School Trustees of Ontario, whereby it is requested that the Cadet Corps now organized be furnished targets, set up on the school grounds, for the purpose of long range practice, and with Morris-tubes and Morris-tube ammunition. In reply, I am to state that we cannot comply with this request because there is no authority allowing us

to do so ; further, there are no Morris-tubes available, nor is there any ammunition which we could dispose of in this manner.

I have the honor to be, Sir,

Your obedient servant,

L. J. PINAULT, Colonel,
Deputy Minister of Militia and Defence.

GEO. ANSON AYLESWORTH, ESQ.,
Newburgh, Addington Co., Ont.
Secretary Trustees' Association.

The Secretary reported as follows :

SECRETARY'S REPORT, A.D. 1903.

The issue of the Proceedings of this Department for A D. 1902 was a little belated because of the general Ontario Elections of last May. Except for this there has been throughout the year nothing about this Department's affairs so unusual as to seem to need comment.

The attention of this Department is called to a recommendation which has been made, and which seems not unlikely at this convention to be adopted by the general Association, to constitute a Standing Committee on Resolutions, to whom all resolutions adopted by this or any other department of this Educational Association, shall be referred ; and through whom—if at all—said resolutions shall be submitted to the Minister of Education ; the said Standing Committee to consist of fifteen members, of whom this Trustees' Department shall elect two.

Also to another recommendation ; that of the sixteen members of the Educational Council of Ontario to be selected by the departments of this general Association, this Trustees' Department shall select one.

GEO. ANSON AYLESWORTH,

Newburgh, 11th April, 1903

Secretary.

On motion of Rev. J. H. Chant, Newburgh Board of Education, and J. W. White, Chairman Chatham Collegiate Institute, the Secretary's report was received and adopted, and the matters referred to therein were referred for consideration and report to a special committee consisting of Messrs. Burritt, Armstrong, McIntyre, Wilson, Dubber, Bowie and White.

Topic I. It was moved by J. G. Elliott, Kingston, seconded by R. McKnight, Owen Sound, That in the matter of "How Best to Promote Moral Influences in the Public and High Schools," the question be deferred for a year, and that a new committee be appointed by the President of this body.

The motion was adopted; and the President appointed the following committee: John A. Leitch, Brantford, Convener; Miss Clara Brett Martin, Toronto; and Mrs. G. R. Pattullo, Woodstock; A. Werner, Elmira; R. J. McKelvey, Kingston; Rev. J. H. Chant, Newburg; and J. McLaren, Orangeville.

Miss Clara Brett Martin, member of the Public School Board, Toronto, introduced for immediate discussion the question—"Should Domestic Science be introduced in all continuation classes in urban and rural districts?"

The session adjourned.

SECOND SESSION—WEDNESDAY, 15TH APRIL.

The Convention reassembled at 9 a. m., the President in the chair

Mr. Charles McKinlay, L.D.S., Georgetown, introduced for discussion, the method of the support of High Schools situate at, or near the boundaries of counties. Messrs. Gilroy (Mount Forest), Huston (Exeter), Kelly (Guelph), Meighen (Perth), Sutherland (Oxford County), and Rev. Mr. Hodgins (of Seaforth), took part in the debate.

The following report was presented:

TORONTO, 15th April, 1903.

We, the undersigned Auditors, have examined the books and vouchers of the Treasurer, and find the same correct, and the books well and neatly kept.

We find the balance on hand to be \$73.39.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

(Signed)

C. W. KELLY, }
JNO. McLAREN, } *Auditors.*

On motion the Auditor's report was received and adopted.

The following were elected:

OFFICERS FOR A.D. 1903-4.

<i>President,</i>	-	-	-	-	J. G. Elliott, Kingston.
<i>First Vice-President,</i>	-	-	-	-	R. H. Jupp, Orillia.
<i>Second Vice-President,</i>	-	-	-	-	J. W. Wood, M.D., Kirkfield.
<i>Secretary-Treasurer,</i>	-	-	-	-	Geo. Anson Aylesworth, New- burgh, Addington Co.

After the above-named officers had been elected by ballot, a committee was appointed to nominate the Executive Committee. The committee made the following nominations, which were confirmed by the Association :

J. W. White, Chatham ; Robert McKnight, Owen Sound ; G. H. Bowie, Ottawa ; Lt.-Col. Cruickshank, Fort Erie ; C. W. Kelly, Guelph ; J. Staples, Lindsay ; A. Werner, Elmira ; L. K. Murton, B.A., Oshawa.

In addition to the above-named officers and elected members, the Executive Committee includes, *ex-officio*, ex-Presidents Farewell, Bell, Somerville, McCracken, McRobbie, Lazier, Dow, Jackson, Burritt, Deacon, Brown, Chown, Leitch and Anderson.

Mr. John A. Leitch, Brantford, was nominated by the Executive Committee as director from the Trustees' Department to the Executive of the Ontario Educational Association. At a later stage this nomination was confirmed by the Association.

Mr. James H. Burritt, K.C., etc., read the following report :
To the President and members of the Trustees' Department :

Your committee appointed to consider the proposed creation of a Committee on Resolutions beg to report,

That we are in accord with the scheme, but we recommend that the representation from this Department on the said General Committee on Resolutions be four instead of two.

With reference to the proposed Constitution of the Educational Council, we are of the opinion that the Trustees' Department should have a representation on the said Council commensurate with its importance, representing as it does the ratepayers of the Province ; and we would, therefore, recommend that this Department should name three members of the said Educational Council.

Respectfully submitted.

Signed on behalf of the committee by

JAS. H. BURRITT, J. W. WHITE,
S. DUBBER, *et al.*

On motion the report was received and adopted.

On motion of Messrs. Murton (Oshawa), and Gilroy (Mt. Forest), the Executive Committee of this Trustees' Department was requested to name two members to act with others appointed by other departments of the Ontario Educational Association, in the due consideration of the "Draft of Proposed Changes in the Public and High School Courses of Study and Organization, and in the Departmental Examination System."

Topic II. of the programme was then taken up,—“Can the Present Scheme of Apportioning the Legislative Grant to Schools be Improved? And, if so, in what way?”

It was moved by Mr. R. E. LeSueur, of Sarnia, seconded by Rev. J. W. Hodgins, of Seaforth, That the legislative grant should be apportioned according to the attendance of pupils, the buildings and and equipment of the schools, and the salaries and certificates of the teachers.

The motion was voted upon and declared lost.

To Question III. of the programme, “Would it Be Better if Our County Model Schools Were Fewer in Number, with a Larger Revenue, a Longer Term, and a Broader Curriculum?”—the Convention, on motion of Rev. W. Craig, of Petrolea, and Mr. J. W. White, of Chatham, unanimously answered “Yes.”

The session ended at noon.

THIRD SESSION—WEDNESDAY, 15TH APRIL.

At 2 o'clock the trustees assembled with the Public School Teacher's Department, where Mr. M. Parkinson, Toronto Public School Board, delivered an address on the “Centralization of Rural Schools” (see page 391).

FOURTH SESSION—THURSDAY, 16TH APRIL.

The President opened the meeting at 10 a.m.

The Executive Committee reported the nomination of ex-President John A Leitch, of Brantford, as director for the year 1903-4, from this Department to the General Board of Directors of the Ontario Educational Association ;

And of Messrs. J. H. Burritt, K.C., etc. (Pembroke), and L. K. Murton, B.A. (Oshawa), to be members of the Committee on the “Draft of Proposed Changes in Public and High School Courses of Study,” etc.;

And of the President, Secretary and Director, together with ex-President Farewell, to be members of the General Committee on Resolutions ;

And of Messrs. Brown (of Dunnville), White (of Chatham), and Dr. Wood (of Kirkfield), to be members of the Educational Council of Ontario ;

Also, the recommendation that the allowance to the Secretary-Treasurer be seventy dollars.

On motion of Messrs. McKnight and Staples, the report of the Executive Committee was received and adopted, and its nominations and recommendation confirmed.

Topic VI., "School Libraries and Free Text Books," was introduced by Mr. Parkinson.

Rev. Principal Gordon, of Queen's University, Kingston, entered the room, and by request addressed the convention.

At the close of the reverend gentleman's address the Convention adopted the following resolutions :

Moved by Messrs. A. Werner and G. De Bus, That the introduction of free text books should be encouraged as much as possible, as the advantages resulting from such introduction redound to the benefit both of the pupil and of the school.

Moved by Messrs. Murton and Dr. Brown (Dunnville), That Messrs. Parkinson (of Toronto), and Werner (of Elmira), be appointed a committee to continue the investigation of the question of the consolidation of rural school districts.

Moved by Messrs. Leitch and Elliott, That this Convention of High and Public School trustees desires to place upon record its unfeigned sorrow at the death of the late Judge Creasor, of Owen Sound, who for many years was a valued member of this Association and a past President.

That the Secretary forward this resolution to the family of the deceased, with the sincere sympathies of the members of this Association duly expressed.

Moved by Lt.-Col. Anderson and Mr. Meighen (and carried unanimously), That this Department is of opinion that final consideration of the proposed new curriculum for Public Schools should be postponed until the several School Boards have had an opportunity of fully considering the draft thereof, and of instructing their representatives respecting their views ; and that the Secretary be instructed to represent to the Hon. the Minister of Education the opinion of this Department, that the new curriculum, proposing as

it does, radical changes from existing methods, cannot be considered by School Boards throughout the Province in so short a time as suggested in the Honorable Minister's address of last night, and to ask that final consideration of the said draft by the Government be postponed until after our next annual meeting.

Moved by Messrs. Elliott and Staples, That the Executive of the Ontario Educational Association be requested to arrange for a more suitable room for the meetings of this Department.

The Convention adjourned until 2 o'clock in the afternoon.

FIFTH SESSION—THURSDAY, 16th April.

The Convention assembled at 2 p.m., the President in the chair.

Messrs. J. Harrison Pew and Col. Cruickshank, of Welland County Council, introduced a motion "to amend the High Schools Act, 1901, by striking out the word 'such' from the last line of subsection 5, section 2, and substituting therefore the word 'any.'"

The whole matter was referred to a committee, consisting of Messrs. Murton, White and Farewell, to investigate, and report to the next meeting of this Trustees' Department.

The Secretary having given a brief account of the annual dinner of the Classical Section of the College and High School Department of the previous evening, it was moved by Mr. J. G. Elliott, Kingston, seconded by Mr. Thomas Jarrett, Trenton, and resolved, That this Trustees' Department appoint a committee composed of Messrs. Aylesworth and Parkinson, to consider the subject of an annual dinner, and to report at the first session of next year's convention.

Mr. R. E. Le Sueur, of Sarnia, introduced the subject of "Truancy."

On motion of Rev. Mr. Crawford, seconded by Mr. G. H. Bowie, Ottawa, a committee, composed of Messrs. Parkinson, Le Sueur, Huston and Meighen, was appointed to consider the subject of truancy, and to report at the next meeting of this Department.

It was moved by Rev. Mr. Crawford, and seconded by Mr. Huston, That, in the opinion of this Association, Trustee Boards in advertising for teachers ought always to state the salary attached to the vacant situation.

The motion was adopted unanimously.

On motion of Messrs. Elliott and Huston, Messrs. M. Parkinson and George Y. Chown, B.A., were appointed respectively first and second alternates to Messrs. Burritt and Murton as members of the

committee of the general Association upon the "Draft of Proposed Changes in Public and High School Courses of Study," etc.

Moved by Messrs Jarrett and White, and resolved, That the matter of vertical writing, and the teaching of music in the Public Schools, be referred to a special committee for consideration, and report at the next meeting of this Department, said committee to be named by the Chairman. The Chairman named the mover and seconder of the resolution, and Mr. R. J. McKelvey, Kingston, as the special committee.

It was moved, adopted, and carried into effect, that President-elect Elliott take the chair.

It was moved by Rev. Mr. Crawford, seconded by Mr. J. E. Farewell, LL.B., etc., That the compliments and thanks of this Association be tendered to the retiring President, Mr. John Anderson.

The resolution was carried with acclaim. Mr. Anderson responded fittingly and feelingly.

The Convention adjourned to reassemble at Toronto University Buildings, on the first Tuesday after Easter, A.D. 1904.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT

OF

The Ontario Educational Association

1903

RECEIPTS :

Balance from last Statement	\$487 45
Membership Fees	337 00
Annual Grant (Ontario Government)	600 00
Advertisements	140 50
Sale of Proceedings	110 06
	\$1,675 01

PAYMENTS :

Convention Expenses and Music	\$40 30
Secretaries of Departments	60 00
Trustees' Department, for Printing, etc.	50 00
Mailing and Postage, 1902	53 04
Mailing, Postage, Express, etc.	109 94
Printing, Circulars, Cards, etc.	124 26
Reporting Evening Addresses	15 25
Expense of Advertisements	33 75
Printing and Binding Proceedings	719 02
Salary of Treasurer	20 00
Salary of Secretary	100 00
Board of Directors, Railway Fare, attending meetings in October. . .	46 65
Balance on hand	302 80
	\$1,675 01

R. W. DOAN,
Secretary.

W. J. HENDRY,
Treasurer.

REPORT OF AUDITORS.

Toronto, 15th April, 1903.

We, the undersigned auditors, hereby beg to report that we have audited the books, vouchers and financial statement of the Treasurer, Mr. Wm. J. Hendry, and have found them correct in every particular. The balance at the close of the fiscal year is \$302.80.

JOHN DEARNESS, }
WM. LINTON, } *Auditors.*

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

SOME NEEDED EDUCATIONAL REFORMS.

JOHN SEATH, B.A., LL.D., TORONTO.

The subject I have selected for my address is, "Some Needed Educational Reforms." I intend to present a plea for the reconstruction of the relations of the main branches of our educational system and to add some suggestions for the improvement of the status of the Public and the High School teacher.

I. RELATION BETWEEN THE PUBLIC AND THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

The relation between the Public and the High Schools, although more satisfactory than it was twenty years ago, is not yet what it should be. The old Grammar Schools—the forerunners of the modern High Schools—were originally for the children of the official and governing classes; and, notwithstanding the gradual popularization of the High Schools under Dr. Ryerson and his successors, the notion that these schools are for the special benefit of the well-to-do and the aristocratic has not yet wholly died out. Now, what the position of the High School should be in our system depends altogether on our definition of popular education. On this subject, let me quote President Eliot, of Harvard University, than whom there is no abler exponent of the claims of liberal culture. According to him, "The fundamental object of democratic education is to lift the whole population to a higher plane of intelligence, conduct, and happiness." And again: "Democratic institutions cannot be safe until a majority of the people can be trusted to observe accurately and state precisely the results of their observations; but, above all, to draw just conclusions."

Put into practice, President Eliot's theory implies free education and a continuous system from the Kindergarten to the end of the University courses in arts. Only here and there as yet do we find state-supported Universities in the United States, but we do find everywhere, so far as my knowledge goes, free primary and secondary schools—Grammar Schools, High Schools, and Technical Schools.

In Ontario we have free Public Schools. An ideal system would be free High Schools and a free University also—a continuous system, modified at different points to meet the necessities of those who drop out before completing the whole course of state-supported education.

Fifth Book and Continuation Classes.

So much for the general question. Let us now consider some of the difficulties that have met us in Ontario as the result of the theory that our High and Public Schools are not continuous parts of one system. Some years ago, in many places, the question of the maintenance of Fifth book classes was a fruitful source of irritation. Time, however, has worked a partial cure. In those localities where there are no High Schools, the number of Fifth book classes, or, as they are also called, Continuation classes, has largely increased. No one who understands the situation and views it unselfishly, can wish such classes anything but the fullest measure of success. Although known by a different name, most of them are simply a lower grade of High School. In the process of evolution, however, their position has become an anomalous one. Many of them attempt the same work as the High Schools, but they are not subject to the limitations which have been imposed upon the High Schools to secure their efficiency. In the coming revision of the Regulations, it will evidently be the duty of the Education Department to adjust the Continuation classes properly to their place in the system. Most certainly, if they are to undertake any part of the work for the departmental examinations for teachers, this adjustment will become indispensable. In their equipment and the qualifications of their staffs such schools must be co-ordinated with the High Schools.

The conditions are, of course, different where the Public School is in the same locality as the High School. What shall be done with those Public School pupils who have completed the fourth form work and intend to remain at school only a year or so, should be, in my judgment, under proper conditions, wholly a question of expense. It is not material whether their education is continued in special forms in the Public Schools, as in Ottawa, Hamilton, and Toronto; or in a special building in connection with the High School, as in London; or, again, in special forms or with special provision in the regular forms, as is, in most cases, the present system of organization. But, if such pupils are transferred to the High Schools, at least the first form should be free and a suitable course of study

should be provided for them therein. Part of the trouble in the past has been due to the unsuitability for such pupils of the classes in some of the High Schools, and to the language courses which circumstances have often forced upon them. At the risk of provoking my friends, the Latinists, I must point out that, under the new course for the junior examination for teachers, this objection should disappear.

One Small Board of Education.

The existence of separate boards for the High and the Public Schools has, in some localities, led to a want of due coherence in the organization. To meet this difficulty and to obliterate for ever the notion that the Public, High, and Technical Schools are separate entities, all in a locality should be under one management. We need boards whose members are chosen in the interests of all classes of schools. I trust that the Bill which the Minister of Education has promised for the reorganization of the schools of Toronto, will, in due time, be followed by one for the whole Province. In the United States, I may add, although each locality is a law to itself in matters educational, all grades of the schools—Grammar, High, and Technical—are, so far as I know, invariably under one Board.

Nor should this Board be large. Here, again, the United States leads the way. The schools of the new city of New York, for example, with a population half as large again as that of the Province of Ontario, are managed by one Board with a membership considerably less than the membership of the Toronto boards; San Francisco, with a population of 350,000, has a School Board of only four members; and Chicago, with a population six times that of Toronto, has a Board less than one-third the size of the Toronto Boards, and so on; the Board being almost invariably small and generally elected by the people at large, although many contain the nominated element and some even are wholly nominated. Large Boards are unnecessary. Nothing proves more mischievous in education than the too common belief that every intelligent citizen, whether on the School Board or off it, is a born educationist. Here, as in all other departments of human activity, the expert should direct. All my experience goes to show that those schools are most successful, and only those are really successful, where this course is followed. School Boards should retain "the right of eminent domain," but in matters professional the less they are in

evidence the better for their constituents. Willingness to follow the advice of experts is, probably, the best proof of popular sanity and intelligence.

II. RELATION BETWEEN THE PUBLIC LIBRARIES AND THE SCHOOLS.

Speaking of the mass of inferior novels under which each publishing season groans, the "Bystander," our eminent publicist, expresses himself thus in a recent number of *The Weekly Sun* :

"All this rubbish (the inferior novels) will find readers. It is impossible that such mental dissipation should not have its effect on mental health. The circulating libraries to which readers flock for novels are intellectual saloons. The consequences will probably be loss of hold on the realities of life, confusion of the moral standard, distaste for unromantic duties."

That this arraignment is, in our case, well founded, there can be no reasonable doubt. From information which has reached me from many parts of the Province, it is, I believe, no exaggeration to say that the percentage of fiction taken from our public libraries ranges from 40 or 50 per cent. to 90 or 95 per cent., and that a good deal of it is of an inferior character. A stricter censorship over the character of the books purchased by the library boards would, no doubt, do something to set matters right, but this remedy would not reach the seat of the disease—the vitiated condition of the public taste. Reform, to be effective, must begin in our schools. The pupil in the Public School as well as the pupil in the High School should go out into life with a permanent taste for good literature. The school system that has failed to produce this result, has failed to accomplish the chief purpose of elementary education.

Condition of Our Library System.

Let us see how matters stand in Ontario. A beginning of an efficient library system has been made in our High Schools. But, practically, there are as yet no libraries in our Public Schools, where, indeed, considering the character of the attendance, they are most to be desired. The provisions under English literature in the proposed courses of study and the encouragement now offered for the establishment of libraries in Public Schools—little, it is true, but, let us hope, only the forerunner of more—show us that the Education Department is not insensible to our danger, or ignorant

of the best means of avoiding it. Ontario must have good Public and High School Libraries—reference libraries and libraries of good general literature—literature which will stimulate and gratify the pupil's thirst for knowledge; which will cultivate his imagination and add to the sum of his happiness; and, which, above all, will keep before him and train him to reverence high ethical ideals of life.

But we need more than school libraries. Neither the public library nor the school library is complete in itself. Each is necessary to the success of the other. The public library should, on the one hand, supplement the all-important work of cultivating the pupil's taste, and, on the other, it should ensure that, when he leaves school, he has acquired the invaluable habit of consulting a library—of attending, what Carlyle has aptly called, "the true University of the people."

School Board Should Control Public Library.

In only one or two localities in Ontario is there as yet even a limited connection between the schools and the public libraries. Here, too, our progressive neighbors have pointed out the way to reform. In many of the States, not only have teachers and pupils special privileges at the libraries, but relays of suitable books are sent regularly to the different school grades, and the librarians give special attention to the needs of the schools in making their purchases. To secure this eminently desirable relation throughout Ontario, one board should control the public library as well as the schools; they are all parts of the provincial system of education. But, until public opinion justifies the step, the principals of our Public, Separate, and High Schools, or at least one of each of them, if there are more than one in a locality, should be members of the Public Library Board; and, to them, when practicable, the Public School Inspector should be added. These school functionaries should be members *ex officio*; and if they are what I trust our principals and inspectors always are, enlightened and forceful men, our public library statistics and our public morals should tell a different tale before many years went by.

We cannot overestimate the importance of our libraries. There is no field of human enterprise in which the man who uses a library has not an advantage over the one who does not. No reasonable person, either, objects to the moderate enjoyment of fiction, the work of genuine writers. Such books sweeten our daily tasks and

lighten the wearisome fardel of human ills. But the highest use of the library is the ethical one—"A good book," says Milton, "is the precious life blood of a master spirit, embalmed and treasured up to a life beyond life." "We come then," says Ruskin, "to the great concourse of the Dead, not merely to know from them what is True, but chiefly to feel with them what is Righteous."

III. RELATION BETWEEN THE UNIVERSITIES AND THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

I now come to a part of my subject which is perhaps not inappropriate, in view of our being for the first time the guests of the Provincial University. My criticisms will be frank, but I know our University authorities well enough to feel confident that they will accept these criticisms in the friendly spirit in which they are offered.

Matriculation Subjects and Standard.

The relation between the Universities and the High Schools is a most important one; for it concerns the character of the work in both, and, through them, the educational status of the Province. This relation involves, in particular, the matriculation examination and the courses for graduation in Arts.

I am, I know, expressing an opinion very generally held when I say that the present scheme of subjects and the present pass standard for matriculation are out of keeping with both the necessities of higher education and the capabilities of our secondary schools. On the question of subjects I do not intend to enlarge. As I shall point out later, the time has come, many of us believe, when the relation between our Universities and the High Schools should be remodelled. What the subjects shall then be will, of course, depend upon the issue.

No educationist, however, needs to be told that the percentage now prescribed on each matriculation paper, even when enforced, does not and cannot secure adequate preparation for University work. Every now and then University dignitaries say to me: "What is the matter with the High Schools? We are all the time getting matriculants ignorant of the elements of English, not to speak of the elements of the languages." Any High School principal can readily supply the answer. As long as the Universities set a low standard, so long will many enter without sufficient prepara-

tion. In England a boy often remains at school for several years after he is able to matriculate. In Ontario many pupils cannot be retained after they have reached the pass standard, or they cannot be induced to go beyond it.

Non-Matriculated Students.

Directly connected with the question of matriculation is that of the admission of non-matriculated students who take a whole or a partial course.

The object of a matriculation examination is evidently to enable the authorities to find out whether the candidate has been properly prepared for the undergraduate courses. As a general rule, therefore, no one should be admitted who cannot give this proof.

Under the system of Junior and Senior matriculation, there has grown up in the Provincial University a condition of affairs which, however necessary it may have been in the early history of our educational system, seems to many of us to be now unnecessary.

Let me present the facts to you as I have ascertained them:*

For the last nine years—from 1894 to 1903, of the total attendance in the first year in Arts in University College, 40 per cent. has consisted of non-matriculated students, and 19 per cent. of the total attendance in even the second year has been of the same character, not to speak of a few in the higher years. The statistics also show that a large percentage of these non-matriculated students have taken the full Arts course, the rest being “occasional” students taking one or more classes. These are all called “non-matriculated”; but it must be understood that some of them are partially matriculated. Of the 48, for example, in the present first year who are taking the full Arts course (I am not here taking account of the “occasional” students), thirty-four have tried no

*The statistics in reference to University and Victoria Colleges are from reports to the Senate and supplementary statements supplied to me by the Registrars. Since my address was delivered, the Chancellor of Victoria has, however, claimed, in a letter to the newspapers, that the number of non-matriculated students in Victoria taking the full Arts course in the present first year, is smaller than I have made it. I have accepted his statement, but have pointed out that special reports to the University Senate for the years 1896-1901, inclusive, show that during this period almost 34 per cent. of the total first year's attendance in Victoria, taking the full Arts course, were non-matriculated students. From 1894 to 1903, inclusive, the statistics show that 30 per cent. of the first year's attendance in University College, taking the full Arts course, have also been non-matriculated. And, of the non-matriculated students at University and Victoria Colleges, 60 per cent. fail each year to pass the Senior matriculation examination, thus demonstrating the truth of my main contention.

matriculation examination or have completely failed, and the remaining fourteen are partially matriculated. I am, I know, not putting the case too strongly when I say that, while there are, no doubt, a few mature students among the non-matriculated, able to go on with most of the work they have elected, the large majority are taking up work which they should have done in the secondary schools. The best of them are weak in one or more subjects, and most of them are poor all around. Such students, if recognized by the College instructors, are manifestly a drag upon the regular classes.

Elementary Preparatory Classes.

Nor is this the only objectionable feature of the present situation. For many years a preparatory class in Latin has been maintained in University College, and this year, I understand, a similar class has been instituted in Greek. In these classes special instruction is provided for the non-matriculated and for those who have passed the formal matriculation, it is true, but who also are deficient in the classical languages. Just what the situation is we may conclude from the fact that the class in Latin usually consists of from forty to fifty—sometimes, indeed, of more—and begins with the elements in October, overtaking the first year pass work during the College session. In French and German, too,—partly, however, owing to the scheme of matriculation subjects—some students enter the classes wholly ignorant of the languages or badly prepared, and, to these, special attention has to be paid by the instructors. No provision is made, I believe, in either English or mathematics, but that none is made is by no means a proof that none is needed. Victoria College also admits freely non-matriculated students. At present over 40 per cent. of the first year consist of this class, and, of these, half are taking a full Arts course. During the first term of the present session, the Registrar tells me, twelve students received special elementary instruction two hours a week in French and German, owing, probably, to defects in their scheme of matriculation subjects. But, so far as my knowledge goes, similar students in the other departments of Victoria have been left to forage for themselves.

In presenting my objections to the unrestricted admission of students into University and Victoria Colleges, I have taken into account both the “occasional” students and the students in the full Arts course; for those who think as I do, believe that it is not in the interests of either the student or the University to admit any-

one whose fitness has not been passed upon by competent authority. No one objects to the admission of non-matriculated students under proper restrictions as to their preparation for the classes they elect. There is no cast-iron rule in the case of the High School entrance. There need be none in the case of University matriculation.

Trinity and McMaster Universities also admit non-matriculated students, but correspondence with their authorities authorizes me to state that such students are admitted only under restrictions in the matter of scholarship. The number of such students in attendance is, however, considerable: I have the particulars, but it is unnecessary for me to use them at present. In Queen's University, Kingston—and I deal especially with Queen's, for she is the only serious rival of the Provincial University—in Queen's, also, the Arts classes are open to non-matriculated students, but under what appear to be strict limitations. From correspondence with the Registrar, I learn that the number of non-matriculated students in Queen's has always been small, consisting mainly of students from the city of Kingston who take a class or two. According to his statement, of a total attendance of 494 in Arts, during the present session, only nine are non-matriculated students proceeding to a degree. It will not be amiss, either, for me to state here, as having an important bearing on the question at issue, that I have a formal assurance from the Senate of Queen's that it is prepared to support any reasonable scheme for raising the matriculation standard in this Province.

It appears, therefore, that the Universities of Ontario all admit non-matriculated students, but all with definite restrictions as to scholarship except University and Victoria Colleges, the Arts Colleges of the Provincial University. To be admitted here, all the student apparently needs to do is to pay his fees.

Inadequacy of Undergraduate Courses.

A word now as to the University undergraduate courses. The good men our schools get from the Ontario Universities are very good indeed; but the lower grades of honor men leave something to be desired. What is really most at fault here, as, indeed, elsewhere, is the matriculation standard. Besides, one of the commonest complaints from our older High School principals who, through stress of circumstances, have themselves become good general scholars, is the narrowness of the culture of many of the specialists

on their staffs—a narrowness, of course, usually intensified by the limited range of their daily duties. With a low matriculation standard, specialization in the University courses is now allowed altogether too soon. I have dealt with this subject from only one point of view. No one, however, needs to be told that this limitation of culture cannot but affect more interests than those of our schools.

Plea for Reconstructed Relations.

Here, let me say, in concluding this part of my address, that many of us who advocate a reform of the relations of the High Schools and the Universities do not take the ground that the Universities are wholly to blame for the present unsatisfactory state of affairs. Under a logical and consistent programme in our Public Schools and with a suitable High School Entrance examination, we believe that a boy should be able to enter a University on the present matriculation course younger and better prepared than at present. You have now before you, at any rate, a draft of the reforms proposed by the Minister of Education in the department directly under his control, and all of you—the University professor as well as the Public and the High School teacher—have been invited to help him with your counsel.

Notwithstanding, however, the defects in the present departmental courses, there is no burking the fact that the Universities of Ontario have been for years encroaching upon the domain of the secondary schools, to the manifest injury of public education. The denominational Universities may do as they please. The Province does not control them. But, at the present juncture we have the right to ask that the University of Toronto, which is supported by public funds, shall cease to duplicate the work which has been long done, and which, from the nature of the case, has been better done in the High Schools. So far, also, as the University of Toronto is concerned, some of us believe that one of the causes of the present difficulties—a Junior and a Senior matriculation—should be abolished. One matriculation should take their place with a more suitable scheme of subjects and a far better standard of examination. In my judgment, *this is the most needed, the most important, and the most far-reaching reform we could secure in the educational system of Ontario.*

I have been emboldened to bring this subject under your notice from the fact that the President of Toronto University, in his

Convoe Add (1900 seems wrong).

very excellent Convocation address of 1900, expresses his willingness, if the departmental regulations should permit it, to support a readjustment of the relations of the Provincial University and the High Schools. He will, I am confident, pardon me for pointing out that it is now in his power "to grasp the skirts of happy chance" and add another to the many obligations under which his administration has already placed the Province.

IV. STATUS OF THE PUBLIC AND THE HIGH SCHOOL TEACHER.

Now, a few words in conclusion on the status of the Public and the High School teacher.

Next to the merits of our educational system, the favorite theme of our rhetoricians is the grandeur and the nobility of the teacher's office, from the Kindergarten to the University. Let us see how this opinion has been translated into the hard facts of our experience. So far as the High School teacher is concerned his position has improved very greatly during the last ten or fifteen years. In the larger centres of population, where usually more liberal views prevail, the Public School teacher shares, to some extent, the consideration—financial and social—which is extended to his brother of the High Schools; only, however, to some extent, for the position of most still leaves much to be desired. But there are many, and I am one of them, who believe that the condition of the rural Public School teacher—the teacher of the small or ungraded school—not only has not advanced, but is on the whole worse, both educationally and financially, than it was fifteen or twenty years ago.

How then is the status of the teacher to be improved? Let me give you a frank statement of my views on the subject.

1. Improvement of Qualifications.

The first step in the regeneration of the teacher should be the improvement of his scholarship and his professional skill. No fair-minded man desires to make any section of the profession a close corporation; but the goal of all educational effort is continually receding, and it is surely not unreasonable to ask that, as the supply of available teachers increases, the standard of qualification should be raised. So far as concerns the High School teacher there is ground for satisfaction; his qualifications have improved very greatly during the last fifteen years, and they will, I have no doubt, continue to improve. But the condition of the Public School teachers, as a body, gives fewer grounds for satisfaction. Apolo-

gists may say what they like; the present plight of the lowest grade is largely due to the ease with which the candidate has long entered the profession and to the over-production of poor material which some years ago accompanied this condition. There is, it is true, a scarcity of teachers in some counties now; but this simply shows that the evil over-production did, lives after it. The proposals which the Minister has submitted to you in regard to the subjects and the standard of the non-professional examinations will, in my judgment, do much to improve the character and the suitability of the rural teacher's scholarship.

But the Public School teacher's professional training must also be improved. Beginning next summer, as you are already aware, the Normal School course will extend over a year. This is as it should be, provided always that the academic preparation has been sufficient. Without better academic preparation, more professional training would be an anomaly. The part of the system, however, that stands in greatest need of reform is the County Model Schools. From them come the majority of the 6,123 teachers of the rural schools. It must, therefore, be manifest that the improvement of the training schools for these teachers is a far more pressing need than an increase in the number of the Normal Schools.

More, however, is needed than an improvement of the Public School teacher's qualifications. Departmental regulations are needed to give these qualifications their due value. Assuredly, in a graded Public School, the Principal should now hold a first or a second class certificate, according to the number of his assistants; and the staff of the larger Continuation classes that do High School work, should now have the same qualifications as are exacted in the case of the High Schools.

2. Better Salaries and Educational Prizes.

However you may differ from me in regard to the proposals I have just made, I expect your favorable consideration of my next. To maintain more efficient schools the salaries of the teachers must be better than they are. Every one knows that a man's status depends a good deal on his income. But I am not basing our claims for increased remuneration on merely personal grounds: our claims must be conceded if the Province is to have efficient schools. A rise in the average salary for each grade of the profession will not, however, meet the case fully. Let me give you an illustration of what I mean. A short time ago I complained to one of our University professors, that the men we are getting in the High

Schools from his department are too often inferior in both ability and scholarship. His reply was—and he proved it to be true—that we are not getting the best men, simply because we do not offer them sufficient inducements: their prospects are better in other employments. And what the professor said of his department I find to be true of the others. Our High Schools do not now receive and retain their due share of the first-class honor men. Most of such men now enter other professions or they take post-graduate courses, which often lead to positions in the Colleges and Universities of the United States. Here they are lost to the Province which educated them and which sorely needs their services. I have no desire to indulge in hysterical denunciations of our paymasters, but I now call public attention to what cannot but prove, as the years go by, a serious drawback to educational progress in this Province.

But, as I have said, more than an increase in the average salary is needed. It is not the average salary that induces able and ambitious young men to enter a profession. It is the prizes at the top. Compared with law, medicine, the church, and even with politics—for politics has become a profession—what prizes are there for teachers? The principalship of a city Public School? of a Collegiate Institute? an inspectorship? even a University professorship? God save the mark!

3. A Superannuation Scheme.

My next point is this: To give the teacher the status he deserves, a generous superannuation scheme, conducted by the Government, should form part of our educational machinery. The teacher has special claims; he is a public servant on a limited salary, which few can increase if they devote themselves faithfully to their duties. Many banks and other corporations now provide pensions and retiring allowances for their officers, and a superannuation scheme has been established in connection with our Provincial University. Is the case of the University professor a more deserving one than that of the Public School teacher or the High School teacher? True, under the present Minister of Education, an Act has been passed giving School Boards the right to grant pensions for faithful service. But it will, I fear, be long before this provision becomes a vital function of our educational system. The Province of Ontario contributes to the yearly salary of the teacher. To be logical, not to say generous, it should contribute to his pension.

4. *More Recognition in the Management of Educational Affairs.*

And lastly, if the Public School teacher and the High School teacher are to hold their rightful place in the educational and the social economy of the Province, they must have more to say in the management of educational affairs. I trust I am not rushing in where officials should fear to tread, when I state that I am one of those—and there are many of us—who believe that our present system of administration is a source of both weakness and strength—in what proportion, I am not here prepared to say. But I *am* prepared to say that some of its weaknesses would disappear if fuller recognition were granted to those directly connected with the Public and the High Schools. This year, by submitting to you the proposed changes in the Regulations, and, more especially, by proposing to recognize you through some of your officers in the important matter of selecting text-books, the Minister of Education has taken a long stride in the direction of a much needed reform. It remains with you to justify your claims to a fuller recognition.

Last year when addressing the College and High School Department, I took the liberty of pointing out that the Ontario Educational Association does not yet possess the influence it should have in matters of educational policy. Sectional disputes, involving, it may be, conflicting class interests, have sometimes blinded you to the importance of larger issues. This session you will discuss more than one question of a controversial character. Permit me to suggest that, however you may finally dispose of a difficulty which all admit, you now take prompt measures to deal broadmindedly with the questions the Minister has submitted for your consideration. Your present session will probably be the most important in the history of the Association; and, although I belong to the official class, you will pardon me, I hope, for assuring you that I still sympathize with you in your aims and wish you God-speed in your deliberations.

THE GOODLY FELLOWSHIP OF TEACHERS.

PRINCIPAL GORDON, QUEEN'S UNIVERSITY, KINGSTON.

When we speak of our teachers we might properly include a very wide circle, as Hugh Miller did, when he wrote about the rocks of his native country as his "Schools and Schoolmasters." In the large training school of life every experience may be instructive, as is expressed in the common adage that experience is the best teacher. Narrowing the circle, our earliest teachers are those of the home. Many a man may say that his mother was the best of all his teachers and the mother may, perhaps, have some fear and misgiving as she sees her child first starting for the Public School, yet, if the relations between the home and the school be properly adjusted there should be no real breach, but rather a continuance of the child's earlier training, for the school should be an annex to the home.

It is, however, to those whose sphere of influence is within the public schools that I refer when I speak of the "goodly fellowship of teachers," those who are represented by such a gathering as I now have the honour to address. We speak of the "goodly fellowship of prophets," and the school teacher has his prophetic function, for he has to make known to others the message which he has received for them, the truth which he knows and which he is called to impart, to reveal to the child what that child might not otherwise see. "Two men," says Carlyle, "I honour and no third: one, the man who wins from the earth the bread for man's body; the other who wins from the Word of God the food for men's souls." That Word may be written in many forms, uttered by many voices: for truth in any and every form is the expression of the mind of God, and, as it is the province of teachers to lead their pupils into truth, we may well speak of them as a goodly fellowship.

Fellow teachers, let us cherish high ideas of our calling, for our fellowship consists not in being members of the same association, parts of the same system, but in unity of aim, spirit and ideal. From the kindergarten to the university let us hold inspiring and encouraging views of our work. There is much that tends to make

our work monotonous and mechanical, as if we were ourselves but parts of a great machine grinding out its daily appointed task. We are always in danger of discharging our daily duty in a mere formal and perfunctory way, closing the desk and the door with a sense of relief that another day's strain is over. We need to get frequently above this sense of toil and drudgery, to breathe the clear, upper air, to rise to our Pisgah summits, to live more among our ideals, with broader horizon and with hope-inspiring outlook. It is well for us to think of the large number who, with ourselves, are coming from day to day as God's messengers and spokesmen to the boys and girls of our country, and to realize that we are knit with them in a very genuine fellowship. The problems that meet me in my work, pressing most heavily in my solitude, are familiar to my fellow-teachers; the hopes that come into my class-work at times like the brightness of a May morning are coming with cheering ray into other school-rooms. I may be solitary as a soldier on picket and may think that my work is but little known or valued by those who get the benefit of it, but, like a refreshing breeze from the hill-tops of the gleam of sunlight upon the sea, quickening and hope-giving, comes the thought of that goodly fellowship of which I form a part, and with it comes the renewed resolve to walk worthy of my calling. Now, let me look at this calling, let me place myself anywhere in this companionship, and let me ask what is my object as a teacher? What am I aiming at? What are my methods? What are the results of my work? I am not posing as a critic; I am not anxious to show how much better the Minister of Education, or the High School Inspectors, or the compilers of text-books, or those who draft the school curriculum, or any other of our educational officials, could do their work if they only sought our advice. Perhaps some members of the Association have already been doing this, for it is an occasional feature of such annual gatherings, and of course we all think we can see many points at which they lose by not consulting us. I would like, indeed, to take this opportunity of congratulating the Hon. Minister of Education on the leading feature of the new Regulations issued by him, his evident purpose to secure greater efficiency in the School system, as shown by the proposed reduction of the number of necessary subjects and of examinations, and by the requirement of a higher percentage, as well as by the effort to secure increased efficiency on the part of the teachers. On points of detail there will, of course, be difference of opinion, but in this

desire and purpose we are all at one with him. But I regard myself at present merely as one of the great number of teachers embraced in this goodly fellowship, and ask myself, What is my object in teaching, what am I aiming at in my school work, what am I trying to do with each one, any one, of those pupils that are under my care several hours every day? Michael Angelo looked at the rough, unhewn block of marble, and, as a vision rose before him, he said, "There is an angel in the marble and I am come to set it free." Can I cherish any such ideal as that when I take in hand the boy or girl entrusted to me?

You bring your child, let me suppose, into my school. If he is not already certified by some previous examination, I question him and soon find out what form in which to place him, and I do what I can both personally and through other members of the staff to make him perfectly acquainted with all the subjects of the school course. He is trained in the knowledge of language and of numbers; he gets his daily share of instruction in the different text-books: Grammar, Geography, History and the other subjects of the curriculum are mastered in turn, and he is kept up to the mark with his classmates in the regular routine of lessons. At the end of the term, if he succeeds in his examinations, he is passed into a higher form, where he still works on similar lines, but on subjects more advanced. And so, term after term, his progress being tested by examinations, he moves on till, having passed through the highest form, he leaves the school, perhaps with a record as prize-man that reflects some credit upon his teachers. Now, have not I done my whole duty to your child if I have enabled him to acquire sufficient knowledge to pass all his examinations satisfactorily? Is not my work in the Public School system confined simply to the child's intellectual training, and have not I even some proper grounds for pride if he has taken his examinations with distinction?

But is it so? Is my whole energy as a teacher to be devoted merely to the intellectual development of my pupil? Is my duty towards him discharged when he has acquired a certain amount of knowledge which he can express on an examination paper? Is not the training of a child far more comprehensive than this, and should not my work affect his moral nature and his feelings, his ideals of duty and of life? It is possible to teach even Arithmetic in such a way as to convey moral instruction, for, if you impress a child with the need of absolute correctness, you are strengthening

his moral fibre, and correctness is quite essential in the solution of an arithmetical problem. It is possible to teach Literature in such a way that, if the teacher clearly discerns and ardently admires the lofty sentiment of the writer, the pupil shall share his feelings, shall catch the perception of beauty, shall respond to the virtuous appeal, shall be fired by the patriotic ardour of the passage that is made to breathe and burn by the teacher's sympathetic interpretation. It is possible to teach the Classics in such a way that the pupil shall not only be quickened to the love of what he reads, but to a determined thoroughness in trying to secure the best English idioms to express it, quickened to such living interest in his work that he has risen far beyond the mere wish of passing an examination to the scholarly purpose of letting the rich life of the original pulse through his translation. We fail, indeed, to rise above the mere mechanical performance of our work, unless we rouse the moral sense or the æsthetic feelings of our pupils in their everyday lessons. And it is possible to make not only the lessons of the textbook, but even the common occurrences of school life the occasion of moral instruction, so that the pupils shall daily receive lessons in truthfulness and purity, in gentleness and courtesy, in kindness and self-control. Nay, these may be the very best occasions in the child's life for just this kind of training, and it is a permanent loss of opportunity for him unless we take advantage of them. Patriotism is not to be taught merely by floating the flag over the schoolhouse and by special passages of our nation's history that may be emphasized on Empire Day. The boys of the United States, who are notable among schoolboys for their love of country, have lessons in patriotism all the year. Painstaking thoroughness is not learned from some illustrative story that may come up in the course of a reading lesson. The school boys of Germany, who are eminent for this virtue, acquire it by the way in which all their work is wrought and by the constant example of thoroughness in their teacher. What you want to bring out in the national character must be put into the Public School, for as is the life of the school, so, in a few years, must be the life of the nation, and if moral training be ignored in the school, the moral fibre of the people must be weakened.

If, therefore, the child whom you place in my charge is trained merely to think and to know, if I have failed to call out the effort to be honest and thorough in his work, to be helpful and self-controlled, to be true and pure and generous, if, while his intel-

lectual powers have been quickened, all sentiment and imagination and ideal have been ignored, and his moral and spiritual nature neglected, then surely, however brilliant his success at examinations, I have failed in a large part of my duty towards him. I am not now discussing by what means I can best develop his moral nature. If I have strong convictions about the supreme importance of character as compared with cleverness, I shall find the means. The daily lessons and occurrences of school will be sufficient, or I may call to my assistance the best of all literature, the wisest, most helpful, most life-giving of all words, our own Holy Scriptures. What I want to emphasize as the serious matter, the very crux of the whole situation, is my sense of responsibility towards the child whom you place under my care. Is it enough that I should so train his faculties and store his memory that he shall receive the approval of examiner and inspector, the brand and diploma of the Department of Education? Or should not all this intercourse that I have had with your boy, intercourse more intimate perhaps than you or any other except his schoolmates can have had with him, be the means and the occasion of my helping him to get truer views of life, loftier ideals, firmer habits of patience and fidelity, so that he may become an earnest, honourable, helpful member of society?

But how far does our Public School system tend to encourage this view of the relation of teacher and pupil? Are not our methods pretty clearly prescribed for us in our Normal School training and in the requirements of the Department of Education? We are accustomed to boast of our system of education, but the danger of systems and methods is that the more you perfect them as such, the more do they tend to uniformity, so that the schools become as much alike as sawmills. The desire for uniformity may breed serious mischief in education, for it ignores the variety of character and of endowment that we find in teacher and in pupil. Even if we were able to make all our teachers and pupils think and work alike, the result were one to be deplored. It is not unity of mere method, but unity of aim and of ideal that should here be emphasized.

No doubt some methods are better than others. Take up any subject in the school course and your experienced teacher can point out the excellence of one way of presenting it as compared with another. And if we had only to do with the fixed element of the subject we might say that there was some good, better, best way of teaching it, and might feel constrained to insist that the best be

always adopted. But we have to do not merely with the fixed element of the subject but with the very variable element of the child mind, as well as with the variable element of the character and ability of the teacher. Two things thus force themselves upon us in connection with this question of method,—the personality of the pupil and the personality of the teacher,—and we must recognise both.

As to the personality of the pupil, we must remember that there is not any fixed type or standard up to which the mind of the pupil is to be brought, as if he were to pass from the school like a manufactured article bearing a distinct brand of excellence. That is not the object of education, for the child is not a sawlog. The purpose of training is to develop the pupil's faculties, to quicken his desire for knowledge, so that he shall have some enthusiasm and delight in acquiring information for himself, to start him along lines of eternal progress, giving direction to his mental and moral growth, and not direction only but as far as possible some helpful impulse. If it were merely a matter of acquiring knowledge and passing examinations, then let him be supplied with every device for "learning made easy," annotated editions of every textbook, helps and cribs, so that every difficulty would be anticipated and questions be answered before they are asked, that thus the pupil would have nothing to do but cram. But we have surely got beyond all such ideas of education. We recognize that the method exists for the pupil, not the pupil for the method. Our system must not be a Procrustean bed to which all must conform at whatever cost. It is to be a guide, not a fetter. Of course, the competent teacher must be familiar with the best system, at any rate with the system approved by the Department of Education, which we may assume to be the best; but systems to be of highest service must be more or less elastic, and the pupils that he has in hand and the ideals that he holds before him must largely determine the freedom which the teacher may take in modifying any method.

Not only so, but the personality of the teacher is of more account than any method. Of course, the teacher must have an adequate knowledge of the subject, and he must be able to present that subject in clear and systematic form to his pupil, but behind the knowledge of his subject, and behind the method of teaching it, is the personality of the teacher. And that is the greatest force in the school. For the most part it matters more to us who our teacher is than what we are taught. It may be a trial with our

inspectors to have to do with original teachers who have their own ideals, and who regard the quickening of the pupil's faculties as far more important than passing examinations, but even inspectors can be appreciative and considerate when they see evidences of genuine work, and, after all, it is the genuine work done that marks off your capable and inspiring teacher from the mere crank who would reject the department's method for some passing fad of his own.

The variety of our pupils, then, demands variety of treatment. And is it not just by this freshness or variety that the freshness of our own enthusiasm can be maintained, and that we are delivered from becoming mere drudges? We know how apt we are to become monotonous and mechanical in our work; we know it and we deplore it. Look mainly at your subjects and your methods and this tendency grows upon you. You become so familiar with them that your interest and enthusiasm are likely to wane, and then, losing the freshness of your own enthusiasm, you fail to move your pupils to living interest. But look mainly at your pupils, at their individual characters and capacities, and then the novelty, the freshness, the significance of this world of young life that is passing through your school from term to term will ceaselessly rekindle your enthusiasm. Your interest in your pupils, thus constantly renewed, will call forth in response their interest in all you say and do. There will be in your case no drawing of the dead line at fifty, and there will be left lingering in the school much helpful influence and many priceless memories after the teacher's familiar voice has been forever silenced.

Now, as to the results of our teaching, if you endorse what I have said, you will further agree with me that the best results of our teaching cannot be expressed by the pass marks or the prize marks of an examination. To have quickened the higher impulses in a pupil's life, to have confirmed him in truthfulness and self-control, to have strengthened his spiritual faculties, is a far higher achievement and far greater service than merely to enable him to pass, even with distinction, the most rigid examination of the whole curriculum.

But you remind me that this is a kind of result that does not count in the school course. No room is found for it in examinations; no recognition is given it by the inspector; no place is provided for it in the departmental returns; no account is taken of it by the parents of the pupil. Can I not stand as high in my

profession, even if I pay no attention to my pupil's moral character, so long as I can manage to get him through his examinations? I have to admit that there is too much ground for this question. I fear that throughout Canada we must plead guilty to the charge that we take far too little account of the teacher's influence upon the character of his scholars, and test both him and them too exclusively by the results of the term examinations. Does he succeed in passing a fair proportion of his pupils? If so, is not the community well satisfied?

And yet there are those who can appreciate the higher work, even though it may take them some time to recognize it. There are inspectors who are ready to give a freer hand to the teacher who can breathe into his school the spirit of devotion to duty. There are parents who can gratefully see its value and whose judgment, if more freely expressed, might largely mould the opinion of the community. There are many of the pupils who know its worth, not fully, perhaps, at the time, but certainly later on when they have the results of years to aid their judgment. Look at the gathering held last year to honour the memory of Dr. Tassie, of Galt, when his old boys came from far and near to bear tribute to his influence upon them. It is not merely nor mainly for the drill by which he helped them to pass examinations that they praised him, and paid to his memory a tribute unequalled, so far as I know, in the history of Canadian school-masters. It was the permanent value of his work upon the character and life of his pupils that inspired their reverent devotion and brought them together to speak of what he had done for them.

And do not the demands of our own higher nature constrain us at least to try to be true to the higher nature of our pupils? Do we not stand self-condemned if, with such great and golden opportunities as come daily to the Public School teachers, we fail, through our own disobedience to the heavenly vision, to help our pupils to see that vision and to follow it? In any line of life worth living it is, in the long run, the moral and spiritual force that wins full and permanent success. We shall achieve the best results, so far as our life work is concerned, and shall pass on to our pupils some helpful influence to achieve the best results in their lives, if we put the first things first, if we place character above cleverness, if we aim at the moral and spiritual, as well as the intellectual development of those committed to our care.

Granted that much of this work may not at once yield visible

results, that it may not produce the commercial "quick returns" of skilful cramming for examination—quick returns with, let me add, small profits—granted that we may have to wait long for the fruit of our work, yet is this so exceptional a fate for the true teacher? Is he not a seed-sower, and do we not know that "the husbandman waiteth for the precious fruit of the earth and hath long patience for it?" If we realize the true nature of our calling, we must make up our minds to be patient in waiting for the full fruits of our work. There are results that we can reap quickly, the results that may be shown by examinations, and I do not want in any way to underrate these. But if we have cherished the true aims and ideals of the teacher, then the richer and more abiding fruits of our labors need far more time to mature. And if we tend to grow weary in our work and in our waiting, may we not, with the goodly fellowship of teachers in all ages, remember that there are things which are seen, and there are things which are not seen, and the things which are seen are temporal, but the things which are not seen are eternal.

THE ADDRESS OF HON. R. HARCOURT.

I am delighted, I need not assure you, to be one of the gathering on this very interesting occasion. I wish to thank, through you, the Committee for extending to me an invitation to be present, and for giving me the privilege of saying even a few words on what, I repeat, is a most interesting occasion.

My first word, to-night, sir, is to congratulate you on your election to the position you now occupy. The Presidency of the Ontario Educational Association is a high honor, and carries with it great responsibility. Even in your presence I may be allowed to say that no one in this Province could be found able to fill that high position more ably or more acceptably than yourself. Under your guidance, sir, I am sure that the deliberations of this annual meeting will result in profit to those who have attended it; not only will they be helpful to the Department, but I predict they will be of lasting service to the great and important interests of education throughout this Province. Your work, sir, because of the position you hold, concerns chiefly secondary schools and secondary education, and yet it is very apparent, from even a glance at the programme of the meetings being held these three or four days of this week, that you have in no sense allowed yourself to forget even for a moment the first importance of Primary Schools and primary education. Now, sir, with the permission of the audience I will, in a general way, speak of some educational topics to-night. My first word was one of congratulation, my second word will be one of appreciation of the interesting, the admirable address we have heard from the learned Principal of Queen's University, whom with gladness and good-fellowship we welcome from another Province to this Province of Ontario. He has talked to us about the goodly fellowship of teachers and he has illustrated it practically by inviting us to hold our next meeting within the walls of Queen's University. Personally I would not regret if the decision of the meeting were the acceptance of that invitation. It so happens, sir, that the President this very year of the National Education Association of the United States—and there is no more important educational association in the whole world—is the head of a college, the head of the great Harvard University, Dr. Eliot.

It has been a matter of comment for some weeks, nay, months, that the programme of the annual meeting of that great association, to be held a few weeks hence in the city of Boston, emphasizes two things particularly : first, the great importance of Primary Schools, of primary education, and secondly, the inseparably close connection between the Primary School and the University. It is, sir, a significant fact, worthy of comment, that the meetings of this Association this year are being held within the lecture rooms of the Provincial University, of the University of Toronto, illustrating once again how close the connection is between the Primary School and the University, linked together as they are by the High Schools of the Province. A second glance at your programme would cause one to reflect that the topics that are being discussed concern most intimately, each one in their turn, these three links of our system.

It is a matter of pleasing interest to point to the fact, that the learned President of Harvard who is to preside over the meeting in Boston a few weeks hence, and the learned Principal of one of our own Universities not only attend meetings such as this, but take as well an active and enthusiastic part in the deliberations of the meetings.

Principal Hutton has well depicted the excellent points of Dr. Gordon's address. Three of them impressed my mind most deeply, and I can recapitulate them in almost as many sentences by referring to three men whose names in educational circles will be looked up to with great esteem. Dr. Gordon pointed out that, although courses of study are matters of great importance, the teacher himself was a greater factor still, and my illustration as to that point I take from a biography of Emerson which I recently read. In the biography of that great man it is said that on one occasion he was told by his little daughter that the following day was to be her first day at school, and she asked her father, "What studies will I take up," and the reply of the philosopher to his little one was : "It matters not what studies you take up; what does matter is the man under whom you study." What a compliment that was to the teaching profession and how closely it illustrates the point which Dr. Gordon made ! And then the Dr. spoke of the hindrance which might result from east-iron regulations if a too nice regard to methods was always followed. He pointed out that there might be harmful results. It is said that Dr. Gow, of Westminster—and if I mistake not, Dr. Hutton will know him (he is still

the master of Westminster)—a learned Professor given to the use of quaint language, illustrated that point by saying that the true teacher should “poke around in the mind of the boy for some months until he could find out what the boy could do.” How significant that remark was! If cast-iron regulations restrict us at every turn, if we believe that there must be the one rule for a class of twenty or a class of forty, then we have no time to poke around in the minds of this or that individual boy in order to find out exactly what that boy is best fitted for, what he is most calculated to do well when he comes to face the struggles of after life. Those are two illustrations.

Now, a third one was this; how right the Doctor is, how true his conception is when you come to consider what your aim is when you face your class; how true it is that the moral consideration, after all, must govern rather than the mere idea or aim of imparting instruction and putting facts in the mind of the child. This fact is illustrated by Dr. Arnold. It was Dr. Arnold who told us, and emphasized the fact that it was a teacher's work to “set up a disposition.” How much there is in that phrase—to build up habits, to set up a disposition in a boy! And this is one of his remarks which will always live—he said: “It matters not whether Rugby will have one hundred boys on her rolls, or eighty boys, or sixty, or even twenty boys. What does matter is that every one of the twenty, if twenty, shall become Christian gentlemen.” That was a grand conception of Dr. Arnold's which I think is worthy of quoting on this occasion, since the idea it illustrates was so aptly enlarged upon by our friend, Dr. Gordon, from Queen's.

Now, sir, your President stated that this meeting, in his opinion, would be a most important one. I quite acquiesce. Why, sir, it has been shown by the figures given to us by the Secretary, that in point of numbers the meeting excels that of any of its predecessors. Perhaps twice as many as formerly are taking part, are deliberating, are discussing these questions, which are of common interest to us all. I agree with Dr. Seath that this, perhaps, is as important a meeting as any which have preceded it; perhaps more important, because greater interest is being taken in school matters the whole world over. In England how loud has been the complaint that but little interest was taken in educational concerns in that great country, even in parliament, in the press, in the magazines, or in any other way?

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN ENGLAND.

Within the last decade—nay, within the last three or four years a great change has taken place in England. It was only in 1894 when that important commission, presided over by Professor Bryce, was appointed, the results of which were so important. Let me give one or two of them. One result was the establishing of an Education Department in England, the virtual appointment of a Minister of Education, and what is of far greater importance, the belief in England on the part of Englishmen, that an Educational Department having regard to the welfare of a nation, having regard to the preservation of its prestige, was of as much importance as the Army Department or the Navy Department. Even in England then we may confidently say that the day is near at hand when the average Englishman will display as much enthusiasm in the schools of England as he shows towards the navy of England. That commission of ten years ago was quickly followed by striking reforms, due largely to the zealous, persistent agitation of the teachers of England themselves, who were ably represented in the English House of Commons by three of their own profession.

A speedy result of this agitation in England was the Bill of last session which occupied the attention of Parliament to a greater extent than any educational measure has for forty or fifty years past. That Bill, although not meeting the requirements in every direction, will, it is conceded, result in no little good. Another Bill is being talked of now, and discussed in the English House of Commons, the effect of which will be to enlarge the provisions of that Bill and make it applicable to the city of London. Then, sir, to show the growth in educational matters in England one has only to recall the fact that almost every month we read of the opening of some new important educational institution devoted almost entirely to what are called the “newer studies” in these modern days. And also the other fact is noticeable that the older institutions, those most revered and honored, are remodelling their courses and are widening their energies, and are paying attention also to new courses, side by side with the old courses which have been honored for centuries. Only a few weeks ago Premier Balfour, surrounded by scores of the most influential men in England, opened in Manchester a school of technology costing a large sum of money, magnificently equipped, generally officered, and his speech on that occasion has been quoted the world over and translated

into almost every known language, showing that in England a great degree of interest, a novel degree of interest, is being exhibited in these matters in which you take special interest.

When talking of such matters one cannot forget the magnificent bequests for educational purposes of Mr. Carnegie and Mr. Cecil Rhodes, bequests not limited in their operation to a single continent, but extending from one continent to another.

PROGRESS IN THE UNITED STATES.

On this continent there is the same activity, the same spirit of educational unrest, the same striving for educational reform and progress. President Roosevelt, only a few weeks ago, opened at Philadelphia a new High School, which is the pride of the United States, a building costing a million and a half of money, the ground on which it is situated costing exactly the same sum, a million and a half of money—a High School doing its work, and doing it well, of a great University. My point is this, that not only did the President of the United States attend the opening of the High School, but he brought with him every member of his cabinet save one, and surrounding him on the platform were scores of the foremost men in the United States, convened from one ocean to the other.

EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN ONTARIO.

Coming to our own province, need I hesitate to point out convincingly that that spirit of unrest which begets progress, and which we should not lament, is present within the confines of our own Province. Dr. Gordon could tell you, had he time, that in his own city there has been great educational unrest, and that, as a result, two or three handsome new buildings have been erected, devoted to the purposes of the institution over which he ably presides. And, coming to this city, sir, take a walk if you will around this beautiful park and notice the college buildings which encircle it, notice the new ones especially, and you will well understand the meaning and the drift of my observation. Our College Presidents in this Province, our governing bodies in this Province, of all our leading institutions, have been puzzling their minds for years how to get the money actually needed to enlarge their school accommodation, and to make additional provision for the needs of their school. All these signs are hopeful; all of them, to my mind, are evidence of a welcome unrest, because it is sure to bring in its

wake progress and reform. It is significant—and I am referring again to your programme—that its scope is wide. I understand that there are twelve sub-departments. It appears from a casual glance at your programme that almost every field of educational work is covered, that almost every department of learning is embraced; that matters of interest to the Public School are discussed in one lecture in this University, while an able and sympathetic, perchance, helpful address in an adjoining room is offered up for the Kindergarten; that the High School representatives are settling their problems in still another room, and yet in another room some who represent the School Boards of this Province are discussing usefully the practical problems which come close to our rate-payers, and a happy solution of which is of great importance to all of us. This indicates the scope of your deliberations. It indicates the wide field which it is expected you will skim over during the three or four days of your annual meeting. It is very interesting to notice those who are to take part in these proceedings. I find that men come from the east, and of course they are very wise men who come from Queen's—to assist in these deliberations; I notice that in our own University, a dozen or more of those on its staff assisting in these same deliberations; I notice representatives from McMaster, and Knox, and Victoria, and St. Michael's and Wycliffe—that all of our higher seats of learning deem it to be their duty to send from their ranks some one to represent them, and take part in the overwhelmingly important deliberations of this annual association of teachers. All these matters, I repeat, are comforting to me in the extreme. Dr. Seath requested me to speak particularly to-night on the question of the proposed new course of studies.

Before speaking of that matter, I should not forget to say—officially it is my duty, I think, to say so—that it is incumbent on me since I have alluded to the magnificence of the bequests of a Carnegie and a Cecil Rhodes, that I should bear witness from this platform to the pleasing fact that some of our own seats of learning have been the recipients during the last year or two of handsome and generous private donations from citizens of Canada. In this connection I ask you to remember the very handsome beneficence of Sir William MacDonald, who assisted to the extent of nearly \$200,000 in erecting buildings at the College at Guelph. I ask you also to keep in mind the very generous donation of different members of the Massey family and of the executors of the Massey estate

towards the upbuilding of Victoria, which is a great prop and support of the Provincial University.

THE COURSE OF STUDIES.

Now, sir, someone has said—and has it not been well said?—that the world has been completely made over during the last fifty years, and that, for example, the course of studies which were nicely and accurately and symmetrically framed for students of twenty or thirty years ago are, because of that fact, necessarily unsuited to the children of to-day. If that principle be correct, then we have reached the time when our course of study should be remodelled. The needs, the conditions, the circumstances of to-day must dominate the situation. Is it not true, further, that the advances of science in their applications to material life during the last ten years have exceeded those made during the thousand years preceding the nineteenth century? Such has been the wonderful scientific development and advance in its application and otherwise to the material needs and to the uses of humanity during the last few years. That being so, therefore, we are but doing as is being done the world over when I suggest to this important Association that it should confer with me in this matter and rearrange our course of study so as to make it more applicable to the needs, the conditions, the circumstances of the times in which we live. I will speak very briefly on this point for reasons which I will enumerate hereafter. I had thought of speaking at some little length. There is no occasion for my so doing, for reasons which I will give you later on. All admit, so far as I can learn in my contact with teachers and school boards, the need of some change. No one expects that we can agree as to details. I ask my friends, Dr. Burwash, Dr. Sheraton, Dr. Gordon and Professor Clark to bear me out when I say that in the synods, the assemblies, the conferences of our various churches, the discussions—and we all know how heated they are at times—that the discussions elicit always differences of opinion. What I ask of you specially is free, open, full, frank and candid discussion; that is all I ask. It often happens, further, in the conferences, in the synods—the work of which we all respect and admire—that a decision is frequently arrived at in an almost equally divided house, and on very important questions. That often happens, happens every year. A decision must be come to, and it often is come to, as a result of a closely contested division. Now, sir, this Association is the teachers'

parliament, the teachers' synod, and from all that I can gather, having heard somewhat of your deliberations in your different sections, it closely resembles those bodies, and I would not have it otherwise in the matters referred to. Let me give a concrete example which my friend, Principal Hutton, will follow with interest. Very recently the vote of the University of Oxford Convocation by a very small majority only, retained Greek as a compulsory subject for the pass degree. The head master of Eton took part in those deliberations. The head master of Marlborough also took part in those deliberations—men conspicuous alike for their culture, their learning, and their devotion to the schools of England. These two practical scholars held diametrically opposite opinions. I could cite one hundred instances quickly and aptly of that same fact—sharp discussion, narrow divisions on the part of men whose candor, whose devotion, whose culture no one for a moment would deem it fair to call in question. That being so, then, we must of course expect division; we must expect not to be able to agree as to all matters. Hurriedly, just a few points as to which I think we can all agree. You will notice that the pamphlet containing the suggested revised course of studies has prominently stamped upon its cover the words "for consideration only." That was my object in issuing that pamphlet. It is for your consideration, and for mine, and we hope that the result of a conference will lead to good results. It is merely a draft, as we call it. I ask you to remember, then, that the Department is in no sense committed to its details. I ask you to remember that I expect that it will be altered, that it will be amplified, that it will be changed as the result of discussion, talking up and down, the result of criticism; that that will happen to that draft which always happens to a bill introduced into parliament, namely, that as the result of discussion in committee or criticism in committee, or an explanation on the part of those who have it in charge, it will emerge from the ordeal considerably changed from its nature when it was first submitted to the house in question. My point, then, is that by conference, as the result of explanation, the clashing of opinions, each one getting the benefit of the opinions of others, we can change the present course of study to the great advantage of the Schools of this Province, and that should be the only concern of the Teachers' Association and of the public in general. You will notice that one of the first suggested changes is that, instead of what one might call the vague and meagre outlines of the

present curriculum, which make the text-book all-important, which make it too much relied upon, instead of that it is proposed to give, where they would be helpful, very full and suggestive outlines—I presume you would call them topical notes. Now, take some of the science subjects in the High School. These, of course, admit of laboratory teaching, laboratory treatment. There is no better method of teaching than that, and in subjects such as those there would be no need at all of a class-room text-book. It will be seen that in the suggested draft—and this is very important, and it is exactly on the line of a portion of Dr. Gordon's address—that here and there and in many places more freedom is allowed. You will notice that there is elasticity instead of rigidity. You will notice that the varying needs of localities are constantly kept in view, and that a generous measure of discretionary power is reposed, and I believe safely reposed, in the teacher, the school inspector and the trustee.

The single strait-jacket course—may I call it such?—unbending and inelastic, although useful at one time, noticeably fails, I submit, to meet our present need.

NEW STUDIES.

Now, sir, the Chairman last night alluded to the fact that some attention was being wisely paid in this Province to what is called the newer studies. Had I time I would ask you to be patient with me while I would tell you what work was being done in places such as Brantford, Stratford, Renfrew and other localities, all of which I cannot name this evening. Now, those new studies, such as Nature Study—that is not very new in its teaching here, but comparatively so—Manual Training, Household Science, these, as I say, have been recently introduced into our Schools, and, I must admit, in a tentative way, and even thus far in an unscientific way. If those studies are to be commended—and I think you do commend the introduction of them provided they do not interfere with other studies of equal importance or of more importance—if we are to provide for them we must correlate them with the other subjects on the programme, and therefore a revision of our course of studies becomes imperatively necessary. The suggested draft in your hands attempts to correlate these new studies with the older studies to which I refer. The topical notes in some of those new studies—perhaps that of Manual Training noticeably—is capable, I am sure, of a considerable modification for the better, of considerable improvement,

and therefore I hope that I will be aided by a committee of this Association in the line of making that one improvement. The lengthening of the Normal School term, provision for which has been made, as you know, will make it possible to provide suitable and adequate training for those who will teach these new subjects. I submit, Mr. Chairman, that we cannot too soon in this Province pave the way for systematized technical education, the high aim of which is to make unskilled labor skilled, and thus increase the earning power of the citizens of this Province. You will observe that in the High Schools provision is made in the lower and middle schools for special courses—another proof of the elasticity to which I have referred—such as in subjects pertaining to commerce or agriculture; and this to be done or attempted to be done, in such a way as not to interfere with the hitherto regular academic work. In this regard we are following the example of other countries, and we are meeting what we suppose to be well-defined modern needs. A hurried glance at another feature. This time I am speaking of methods of teaching, to which reference was aptly made to-night. You will find suggestions offered as to the teaching of some of the most important subjects. Take Arithmetic, History, Reading, English Literature; what I say will apply to all of them. I believe these suggestions will meet with your unanimous and earnest approval. Let me illustrate. Reference was made to numbers to-night, and it was shown to you that even in dealing with the hard grained muses of the cube and square the full teacher, the well-equipped teacher, can improve the occasion by imparting moral lessons—lessons of accuracy, lessons of devotion to true results. Take Arithmetic for example. The suggestion is to take care in the practical teaching of it that the problems and the processes and the exercises shall have regard to the actual needs of business life; that they be not merely fanciful, as they have been sometimes hitherto, but that they will, as the result of the teaching, directly assist a scholar when he leaves the school-room and is called upon to face the actual struggles of life. Take the teaching of History. Dr. Seath told you last night of what great use libraries can be made to a people. In a word, he told you that the main difference between the savage of yesterday and the civilized man of to-day is one of books; that the test is not the number of them, but the quality of them; and I agree with every word the learned Doctor used in his desire to assist the Department in re-organizing, and changing for the better the whole library system of this Province.

Or take the teaching of History ; what is thought to be accomplished in this suggested new course of study ? That the scholar shall be induced by himself to take a living interest in historical studies, and that the teaching should have regard to the life of peoples, to the art of peoples, the methods of living, to their literature rather than to be a mere bare chronicle of dates of this or that fact of history. The Doctor's argument was that if you make History interesting to a child in that way, the library problem is solved. It is completely solved. If one of you will induce one of your boys of his own accord to go through a volume of Parkman, you have done your work magnificently, and I ask you nothing about your method, I ask you nothing about your devices. The boy or the girl who has read one volume of History will not stop at that, but will go on and devour every volume which Parkman has written, and will have learned the lesson that there are interesting books, and that boy or girl will constantly be on the search for those interesting books. So that, if our new course of study results in giving you that freedom, so that you may make an Arithmetic lesson of actual use in every-day life ; if it will enable you to teach a child that a history is as interesting as a volume of romance, then it will have accomplished good. I could go on and give other illustrations, but I wish to speak on one or two points of equal, if not of more importance. Allusion was made by Dr. Gordon to that ever-present question of examinations.

EXAMINATIONS.

That question alone is large enough to take up one's time, not one evening, but to take up the time of all of you during the sessions of your Association. But I think, as the result of talking up and down, as the result of discussion, we are pretty well of one mind in this audience as to this vexed question of examination. These are my views, and there is nothing novel in them : examinations within reasonable limits are very essential and a very valuable part of true education. A moderate view, the sound view, seems to me that examinations which have qualifying values are necessary ; and that examinations which have regard only to the principle of competition are not necessary, but are harmful. That is the distinction which I draw. We will always need, then, examinations by way of entrance to Medical Schools, Normal Schools, the Universities ; but we do not need the number of examinations or the complex examinations which we now have under the heading

of departmental examinations. I understand, sir—and you will know whether I am right or not—that neither in England, in the Motherland, to which we all so aptly look for wise precedent, neither in France, the educational history of which is creditable in connection with the educational problems such as we are discussing to-night, or the United States, is it a custom, as far as advanced primary education is concerned, to round it off—I am taking the phase you so often hear—by regular examinations. It is not the custom in any of those three countries, in which the experience of centuries is used to mould and to produce good educational results. The proposition in these draft Regulations is to retain only absolutely necessary examinations, such as the High School entrance and the teachers' non-professional examination. I invite your attention to the consideration of this question. You will admit that we can, with absolute safety, lessen the number of them; but can we not do more? The suggestions in the draft give you the hint that we can reduce the pressure of examinations in another way, a well known way, namely, by limiting the number of subjects to be taken in a departmental examination; to accept the teachers' certificate as to those subjects which do not lend themselves conveniently and readily for examination purposes by those not of the teachers' staff. If this be done, moderately done, I do not fear that the quality of the teaching will suffer; nor do I fear that the teacher cannot be trusted with the increased responsibility which it is proposed to put upon his shoulders. I trust the teacher. Some papers, then, will disappear in your entrance examinations—your Literature and Physiology and History papers. Then take the whole course of the lower school—three courses now in the High School. In the whole lower course, one of the three divisions of the High School, both teacher and scholar would hereafter be completely free from the dread of impending examinations—no examination in that course at all. It is also suggested that the Commercial Diploma examination will no longer be conducted by the Educational Department. A word as to something which will concern my learned friends who surround me on this platform, and whose aid I constantly seek, and who have been so helpful to me during the short time it has been my lot to administer the Education Department affairs of this Province—a word which will interest them. It is suggested to completely separate the teachers' examination and the University matriculation examination. Why do we suggest that? We suggest it because we believe that the

teachers' examination should have regard solely to the teachers' need—solely, only, wholly, to the teachers' need. To do this I wish to say to my friends we need not in any way disturb—it will not, so far as I am concerned, in any way disturb—the existing agreement as to the conduct of the joint University matriculation examination. It need not disturb it; nor, sir, need it interfere at all or prevent the colleges so ably represented on this platform to-night from accepting the teachers' examination *pro tanto*. It may be with different marks, with different standards, but it need not prevent them in their own way from accepting *pro tanto* these examinations. Another word, lest I forget it. You will notice that these changes, if we are to have them, are not to be accomplished at once. There is provided easy transition. How important this is! Some of the changes not coming into effect till 1906; others not till 1905; none of them till 1904. May I not, then, now say to you that I think you will be of great assistance to the Department if you will appoint a thoroughly representative committee, representing all the interests which are concerned, and with this draft in your hands, meeting as often as the importance of the subject demands, think the whole subject over, talk it all down during, say, the months intervening between now and your next convention, then meeting again—I was going to say Dr. Gordon, in these halls, but you do not wish that—in Kingston, it may be, meeting again, and I hope with considerable unanimity suggesting to me that the modified Regulations which you will put in my hands can safely be adopted as part of the Regulations which will govern our educational system.

LATIN.

My old friend, Principal Hutton, would feel offended if I did not allude to another point, and that is something which in some way concerns a certain subject, that subject being the Latin language. The suggested mission—and my friend the Principal will keep it in mind that it is only a suggestion—we are going to talk things over, we are going to confer—the suggestion that the study of Latin shall be omitted from the course provided for junior non-professional examination will, I think, elicit some discussion and not a little debate; I expect that it will from a hint Principal Hutton gave me. May we not insist that our teachers shall be thoroughly and accurately trained, first of all, in all essential subjects? Is that proposition

not a safe one? The new draft course aims at thoroughness, aims at strengthening the teachers' equipment; and the teacher is above all matters of methods and matters of regulations.

If I could secure highly equipped teachers in this Province, then I would not ask you to waste time in talking about courses of study or of method. Everything would go well if every teacher was highly equipped. The new draft course aims at this thoroughness from first to last. Mr. Chairman, I submit that no one would suggest that this or that subject should be taken up in a half-hearted way, in a superficial way, at the expense of essential subjects. Now, we will agree that far; no one would suggest that. Then, on the other hand—and here I quite agree with my friend, Principal Hutton—no one would suggest that a single step should be taken in this Province which would discredit the profitable study—mind you, profitable, earnest study—of a language which can fairly be said to be the world's greatest language, and which certainly is the master key of nearly every language of modern Europe. Every one, sir, admits that there is no better instrument known to the teacher or professor for developing mental power than a thorough study—mark you, a thorough study of a Latin language. I leave that matter for your deliberation. I believe, Mr. Chairman, that every part of this draft is well worth careful discussion, careful thought, and I repeat that I ask you, and that is all that I ask you, by means of a special committee to give it your very thoughtful and your very careful attention. A word or two and I am done. Our teachers in training, after the summer's holiday, will have the advantage of a full year's course at our Normal School, and not a half year as heretofore. We did not, I am sure, take that step one hour too soon. The lengthened term will ensure greater thoroughness and better work generally. Full provision has been made in these schools, or is being made—has been made in some of them—for teaching efficiently the newer studies to which I have referred—Household Science, Manual Training, Nature Study and other subjects such as these.

TEXT-BOOKS.

A word only about text-books; this is another vexed question. I hope this Association will approve of the changes I have made concerning the vexed question of the authors of text-books. The regulations recently adopted transfer to a great extent the responsibility in this connection from my Department to an Advisory Committee of the Educational Council. I will ask the

House in a few days to increase the teachers' representation, both High School teachers and Public School teachers, on the Educational Council. Mr. Chairman, no text-book will hereafter be even considered for authorization unless it has been published and circulated at least six months before authorization is applied for. When application is made for authorization my Department will send the book in question to the Committee of the Educational Council for perusal, for criticism, and for report. In a Public School text-book care will be taken that on the Committee of the Educational Council the Public School teachers shall be adequately represented. If it be a High School text-book it will be considered equally; care will be taken that there shall be High School representation on the committee before authorization of that book is considered. In this way may I not assert with some confidence that no room is left for even a suspicion of favoritism, either towards the author or the publisher. In lengthening the Normal School term, in giving your Association more adequate representation on the Education Council, and in assigning to that Council virtual control over this text-book question, I believe that I am on safe ground.

REFORMS.

Further—and I now have regard to matters aptly alluded to by our friend the President last night—I sincerely wish and hope to be able to improve the studies in County Model Schools. I am determined to attempt to make radical changes in the matter of public libraries; and I also hope, with your assistance, to so revise the course of studies that it will be considered on all hands to be very well adapted to the changed conditions of to-day. In all these matters, I repeat, I have decided to consult, from time to time, with the representatives of this Association. One other remark, and then I am finished. Dr. Seath last night alluded to a question perhaps more vexed than any of these to which I have alluded, namely, the payment of teachers. In some countries, as you all know, noticeably Germany, the teacher has the status of a civil servant, and that solves the whole question. There is no superannuation question to consider, because, being a civil servant, he is provided for, and he gets from year to year an increment of salary until a certain maximum is reached, so that socially, financially, and every way, the German system works for the educational good of Germany. If my friend the Chairman had allowed me, ladies and gentlemen, I would have taken another text to-night completely.

I now want to give you the text I thought of talking upon, with your kind indulgence, only a few days ago. If my text to-night has not been a suitable one, your President is to blame. Now, this would have been my text. I read two or three weeks ago—and this bears on the question of the financial remuneration of a teacher—these few forceful, meaning, stirring words from one of the masters of old Eton College in England, Mr. Benson—and it was these words that I meant to take as my text to-night. “To preach education and yet leave a removable obstacle in the way of the best men devoting themselves to the training of youth, is a hypocritical farce. In our great care for education we make the schoolmaster’s life such that the forceful man, the man of energy, large heart and large ideas—in short, the man who is best suited to be a master, generally gives up schoolmastering the moment he can find an opening elsewhere. Indeed he will think it an advance to give up the making of men for the making of paragraphs. The shame is not his.” That, sir, would have been my text had I followed my own mind a few weeks ago. I close, sir, by again expressing my delight at being privileged to attend, by conveying my thanks to the committee for giving me an opportunity to say a few words to you, and by once more repeating my appreciation of the thoughtful and earnest address of the Principal of Queen’s, who will prove a worthy successor of the resourceful, the talented, the progressive, the indomitable late Principal of Queen’s.

CAMP-SCHOOLS.

A. O. PATTERSON, M.A., NAIRN CENTRE.

Education and culture are for all. There should be no oligarchs in the republic of letters. The Camp-Schools suggest a new and enlarged conception of the educational idea.

But the men on the frontiers of our country's progress should not be looked upon as mere navvies and alienated from the light of that civilization they are preparing the way for. They should be treated as men and citizens, not as beasts of burden. If we treat them as gladiatorial slaves, and while their limbs are massive allow their minds to become brutalized and low, we may expect gladiatorial revolts, strikes and debauchery.

The reports of the seven instructors in the Reading-Camps show that something can be done with this class of men. One hundred and seventy men received instruction during the past winter in the rudiments of learning and many others were stimulated to read and to give their attention to things higher than gross conversation and gambling.

The schools of correspondence cannot do this work because men so illiterate need direct, personal tuition. A prominent Canadian lumberman estimates that of the French-Canadians, who are in the majority in the woods, 65 or 70 per cent. are totally illiterate, and of the English-speaking 10 or 15 per cent.

The educational system of the country must enlarge itself. The man who toils and labors must be brought near to the man who thinks and knows that the country's hand and head may work together in perfect accord. Knowledge without virility or virility without knowledge are alike weak and contemptible.

COLLEGE AND HIGH SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

INDIVIDUALISM IN EDUCATION.

J. E. WETHERELL, B.A., STRATHROY.

From time immemorial clergymen have been accustomed to base their pulpit expositions and exhortations on a brief passage of Holy Writ. The pastor's text is like the *metæ* in the ancient circus. From this point he starts, and around it he wheels at least seven times. His text serves as a point of departure, as a guide and restraint, and as an ultimate goal. So useful a device as this perpetual and universal practice of clergymen I purpose to employ in my brief address to-day. I shall take my text from that Master of English style and English wisdom, Walter Pater. In one of his wonderful books, in speaking of the ancient Greeks, he says: "They were great and free, and grew up on the soil of their own individuality, creating themselves out of themselves, and moulding themselves to what they were and willed to be." There in a nutshell are the ideas which I wish to expound and to apply to educational methods. In this Province of Ontario, for a quarter of a century, schools, teachers, pupils, have been too much "cabin'd, cribb'd, confin'd." There are signs of a new day dawning, a day of greater freedom for the schools. A new era is at hand, and it is my privilege, from this post of honor to which you have called me, to make a few comments on the Time-Spirit of current educational life.

"Ev'n now we hear with inward strife
A motion toiling in the gloom—
The Spirit of the years to come
Yearning to mix himself with life."

The Greeks grew up on the soil of their own individuality, says Walter Pater. As a race they copied no antecedent model. The separate states of Greece took their own life into their own hands, and worked out strenuously their own development. Sparta was the mother of militarism; Athens was the mother of arts and eloquence. In each state, in its best years, individualism flourished.

A glance at Athens in the age immediately preceding the Peloponnesian War will show how that wondrous city, under the guidance of her greatest Son, moulded herself to what she was and willed to be.

Such an amazing galaxy of intellect and art has never been seen in any other age or country as that which clustered around the central sun of Pericles. That consummate statesman gave the world for all time a model in statecraft. And the key to his brilliant success is the stress that he laid on individualism. He found a city full of lazy people, and he set them all to work. The historian tells us that during the age of Pericles Athens gave birth to more great men—poets, artists, statesmen, philosophers—than all the world besides has produced in any period of equal length. The historian ascribes this miracle to the genius of Pericles. This is true, if genius is the ability to see things in their true perspective and proportion, and to produce the maximum results from attainable materials. Pericles saw in that small city, considerably smaller than this City of Toronto, infinite possibilities for all kinds of human activity and progress. He set a whole city full of idle men to work. Not everyone could become a Phidias; not everyone a Sophocles; not everyone a Thucydides; but every man could do something. Athens became a vast labor-house. Not only did literature, and painting, and sculpture, and music, and architecture, develop and flourish, under the fostering care of a sympathetic patron, but every man who could work in gold or silver or brass or ivory or iron or stone or wood went to work, and went to work with abiding pleasure. Those who had gifts for the law, to the number of six thousand, served as jurors. Those whose veins thrilled with martial longings became citizen-soldiers. Every man followed his bent. No man was obliged to follow where neither capacity nor inclination led. Talent was discovered where even the possessor dreamed not of its existence. What would one not give for an accurate vision of the daily panorama to be seen in Athens in those busy years? Up the steep road to the Acropolis and out by the long walls to the sea, was a constant procession of busy Greeks. Those who were not in the busy train were "hewing and tugging and lifting and carving" the stones and pillars that were destined for wall or for temple. No man was now idle and no man wished to be. The enthusiasm of the new life had been breathed into them by their Master, and whatsoever their hands found to do they did it with their might and with their skill. Here

we have the Greeks at their best, and the finest example of the individual method in the direction of public affairs that the world has seen.

Some one will say that this splendid activity was like a fever, and soon burned itself out. Not so. In time Greece fell, in the misleading language of history. She but died to be clothed with immortality. Had she not lived the Periclean life no immortality had been hers. Greece fell, but Greek ideas in literature and art and the whole range of human knowledge dominate the world to-day. Said Sir Henry Maine, the great English jurist: "Everything that is not a law of nature is in its origin Greek." To Greece, and especially to Athens, therefore we go, to see if there is no inspiration or suggestion there for the schoolmaster in his work.

Our schools should have an individual life. Too long in Ontario have we bowed down and worshipped uniformity. There is no good reason why the economics of all schools of the same class should be identical. Variety is not necessarily chaos. The bureaucratic system of educational administration has been pushed to absurdity in this Province. The famous bed of the Attic robber, Procrustes, has been made a model for our schools, and lucky indeed the school whose circumstances made the bed a perfect and comfortable fit. We have perhaps not gone quite so far as a certain Minister of Education in France who is reported to have boasted that when he rang a bell instantly began the same lesson in all the schools of France. But our Ontario system for a quarter of a century has been hampered by much needless uniformity. (Let me say here that this paper has special reference to the High Schools of Ontario.)

The curricula of our schools have been made and revised by the Bureau in Toronto, and all schools have been bound to follow the central authority to the minutest details. Mistakes, egregious mistakes, have been made again and again in the framing of the curricula, and every school has suffered accordingly. If, during the last twenty years, every head master had made his own curriculum (I am not intending to advocate such a system), is there anyone present who will assert that educational progress would not, on the whole, in many schools have been as satisfactory as it has been during a considerable part of these last twenty years. The era of the Form I. examination, and the Form II., Part 1 examination, and the Third Class examination, and the Public School Leaving examination, is now, thank heaven, a thing of the past. We see

how foolish we were. These wretched crotchets to secure uniformity, we now see, had not even the value of those stepping-stones on which men and systems rise over their dead selves to higher things. The whole dismal business was wrong, and every school in the land had to follow the gorgeous procession.

Of course, uniform curricula were accompanied by uniform text-books. And here again the schools have suffered. If every master had been allowed these twenty years to choose his own text-books, who will assert that educational progress would have been retarded. Take one instance, the text-books in Ancient History. In twenty years I have used five different authorized text-books. Will any one say that each individual master could not have compassed the choice of a suitable text-book in Ancient History as wisely as the central Bureau has done.

In the matter of time-tables, too, we have had too little freedom. We have been told that a certain subject must be taught so many times a week for so many minutes a day to a class of so many. Now I have learned this among other bits of knowledge that I have picked up in a quarter of a century in our schools—the amount of effective work accomplished in a class cannot be measured by minutes. One teacher can do as much real work in fifteen minutes as another can do in thirty or even sixty. The teacher of experience can always accomplish much more work in a given time than the tyro. In fact, I would not value very high the worth of a teacher who cannot in twenty years double his effectiveness in the matter of the measure of work by minutes. In the construction of our time-tables, then, we should have more freedom from central control.

Do not misunderstand me. I am not advocating a lax and intemperate system of “as you like it.” Here, as in everything, we should seek the golden mean between severe repression and unrestrained license. Our schools should be allowed, with a minimum of restrictions, to work out their own salvation.

There was once upon a time a period when Ontario schools enjoyed the freedom which I extol and crave. There was a time, under the crude system of Dr. Ryerson, when the other extreme was the vogue. Let me take you for a few minutes to a Public School in this Province of Ontario, and in this County of York, taught nearly forty years ago by one who twenty-three years ago was elected President of the Ontario Educational Association—a teacher who is still active and still progressive in one of our

Ontario towns. For his senior class he framed his own curriculum; he chose his own favorite text-books; he, I assure you, made his own time-tables without outside assistance. To boys and girls of ten, eleven, and twelve years old, he taught a list of subjects which would even now be thought unique. In addition to Reading, Writing, Spelling, Grammar, Composition, Literature, British History, Map Geography, Arithmetic, Book-keeping, he gave his young pupils a good start in many other subjects in which he himself was interested. The legends of Greece and Rome he revelled in. Those who had a taste for Drawing were encouraged to copy the pictures of animals to the number of fifty hanging on the side-walls. Sangster's Philosophy was a *vade mecum* for those who had capacity for it. The First Book of Euclid was most thoroughly mastered. Algebra was a reward for those who made good progress in Arithmetic, quadratic equations according to Colenso being the limit aimed at and reached. Cutter's Physiology, with its attractive skeletons, showed them how fearfully and wonderfully they were made, and the pupil who could not name the two hundred and forty bones of his anatomy was voted by his comrades as exceedingly dull and behind the times. Botany and Zoology had their occasional turn. Greek and Latin roots were not neglected. A weekly debate on Cat *versus* Horse, or War *versus* Intemperance, lent variety to the programme. Music, too, vocal with a vengeance, shook the roof of the school-room from 3.30 to 4 o'clock on alternate days. That school had certainly an individualism quite marked; but that individualism was its very life-blood. Under some masters the system would have proved confusion and chaos and utter inefficiency, but in the school in question perfect discipline and unerring tact were the constant attendants of the master's individual plans; and the school prospered, and the pupils rapidly advanced, and leaving school each could say what is not often said in similar circumstances:

"Joy have I had; and going hence
I bear away my recompense."

This educational instance may be quite exceptional, but it illustrates what may be done with exemption from bureaucratic interference.

There is another way in which individualism should work in our schools. *In our graded schools, at any rate in our High Schools, each master should be allowed to exercise individual methods in*

teaching and in discipline. It is to be supposed that the master is competent. If he is not competent, or if he is inexperienced, too much individualism may wreck him. But with a few years' experience and with good judgment, the assistant master should not be tied in leading strings. Of course, he must not plough a lonely furrow, for the interests and aims of the school are corporate, and there must be a certain measure of harmony in all things among the members of a successful staff. However, within certain limits each master should have perfect freedom of movement and method. When head masters prowl and inspect too much, and by their fussiness restrict the individuality of their teachers, they accomplish little or no good by their excess of watchfulness. "They lose it that do buy it with much care."

We have now reached another phase of individualism in our schools, the most important of all. With uniform and inflexible curricula, uniform text-books, and uniform school economics, *the individual tastes and capacities and circumstances of the pupils have been too little considered.* The neglect of individuality and individual claims is a necessary accompaniment of all corporate training, and much of the work of the school-room trains groups rather than individuals. But in the training of the intellect we are too prone to pursue the military mode of division and subdivision, and the same drill and exercise for all, overlooking the fact that the training of soldiers is to fit them all for the day of battle, whereas the training of the school-room is preparatory to a score or more of diverse occupations and professions and modes of activity. By an odd coincidence, on the very day that I penned this part of my paper, I read in a Toronto journal these words *apropos* of my subject: "It may be true that we have not yet discovered the best system of education. It may be true that what is needed is less system. It may be that individual talents and needs must more and more be taken into consideration in dealing with the boys and girls who are to be the men and women of tomorrow." The editor of *Saturday Night* can never be accused of falling in the rear of modern movements. A highly organized and artificial system of education is doubtless the easiest to control. An artificial and inflexible system of school classification and training is doubtless the easiest for the teacher. If a teacher would save himself work, regarding his own ease rather than the welfare of his pupils, he will prefer to shut his eyes to the fact that the mental needs and capacities of his class are as various as their

facial differentiation. "The end of education," says Mill, is to render the individual, as much as possible, an instrument of happiness, first to himself, and then to other beings." This end of education cannot be reached, it is needless to say, when the system of public training and the methods of the teacher throw the emphasis of their purpose and labors on masses rather than on individuals. We teachers are too prone to consider our own present and future happiness rather than the happiness of other beings, for we find the collective system of tuition the shortest cut in despatching the day's work.

That the inflexible system which has treated all our pupils alike is soon to give way to a more rational system is indicated by some changes now proposed by the Education Department. The cords of bureaucracy are to be loosened a little. The new Regulations, after outlining the different courses of study, graciously add a saving clause (Section 3, 3): "with such suitable modifications of the obligatory subjects as the Principal may deem expedient or practicable." This is a long step forward! Then, in the matter of Physical Culture, the form and extent of the exercises in the Middle and Upper Schools are "to be left to the discretion of the Principal." Another shackle struck off. Most important of all to individual pupils is the multiplying of the courses to suit diverse tastes and needs; and in these words I find an admission of the wrong practices of the past and a sincere endeavor to individualize in the work of our schools: "The Principal may omit or curtail the course in any of the obligatory subjects in the case of individual pupils who are not preparing for examinations and whose circumstances deserve special consideration." That is a phrase worth dwelling on—"whose circumstances deserve special consideration." That is a frank recognition of the fact to which we have deliberately shut our eyes for a score of years. We sit down with our families at table and do not expect all to eat of every dish. A sufficient variety is offered, and this member of the family declines a dish that would nauseate, and that one declines a food which he has learned is for him indigestible. This one takes a second helping of a favorite dish, that one a mere taste satisfies. In our schools it has too long been the custom to feed all with the same spoon out of the same dish and to make all eat of everything. We have persistently forced all, notwithstanding grimaces and sometimes agonizing appeals, to swallow what others have selected for them, regardless of their own individual predilections and individual requirements.

This similitude from the dining-room suggests another comparison. Our dinners vary from day to day, if we consult our physical well. The successive days of school life should have individuality. "To-morrow, and to-morrow, and to-morrow creeps in this petty pace from day to day" should never be a working motto for a school-room. The days should be as different as Nature's own. No two lessons in the same subject should be exactly alike. The pupils should never be able to predict with certainty the lesson-plan of the teacher. Henry Newbolt declares: "If you want to keep your soul alive, do not always say Amen." If the teacher wishes to preserve the animation necessary for his own growth and that of his pupils he must differentiate to some extent, the work of every day and hour of the school year. This does not mean disjointed incohesion. There must be cohesion and unity, just as Nature ties together her three hundred and sixty-five varying days and makes a perfectly developed year.

*THE RELATIVE VALUE TO PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS
OF THE DIFFERENT SUBJECTS ON THE
HIGH SCHOOL PROGRAMME.*

F. W. MERCHANT, M.A., D.PÆD., LONDON.

The question which you have been kind enough to ask me to discuss may be considered from two view points:

1. The ideal equipment of the teacher.
2. The necessities and possibilities of the non-professional training of teachers under present conditions and limitations.

The first question is the wider and more inviting, and, as the conception of an ideal is necessary to progress, it is important; but at the present juncture the second topic is probably the more practical. I have, therefore, set myself the task of discussing some phases of the concrete situation.

But at the outset let me say that, while dealing with the limitations of a special problem, I do not wish to be considered as advocating in general terms a narrow or one-sided training for the teacher. I quite recognize that the deeper his reading, the broader his culture, the more extended his knowledge of men and affairs, the more beneficent and far-reaching will be his influence.

I desire also in beginning to note a further restriction. I do not propose to enter upon the discussion of the wider subject of the correlation and co-ordination of studies in secondary education. The necessity for making this limitation is obvious. Unfortunately we have become so accustomed to look upon the determination of the non-professional requirements of the teacher as practically one and the same as the organization of a course of study for High Schools that there is danger of confounding the two questions. Many of the imperfections both in the Public School teachers' qualifications and in our High School system are a direct result of this confusion. The qualifications of the teacher should be determined solely by the character of the work which he is to do; while the problem of the educational values of subjects in a properly correlated system of secondary education is a definite problem, obviously involving factors more universal than those to be considered in settling upon the requirements for entrance to any institution or for admission to any profession.

The real question then as restricted is, "What under present limitations and conditions are the subjects in the High School curriculum which should be required, and what phases of these subjects should be emphasized, in the non-professional training of teachers?"

To answer these questions we must consider both the limitations and the special technical requirements of the Public School teacher.

First the limitations. Owing to the nature of the remuneration, the time which a candidate can afford to spend in preparation for the lowest grade certificate is necessarily limited. Three years is the usual period now spent at the High School. Four years under present conditions may be considered a maximum.

While it may be contended that, if the time required for preparation were lengthened, fewer would enter the profession and the salaries would be correspondingly higher, yet it must be remembered that the taxpayer really controls the situation. The standard may be gradually raised, probably slightly in advance of public sentiment, but if the requirements are at once materially raised the reaction of public opinion is sure to be felt. The results of the attempt of the Ontario Medical Council to raise the standard of admission to the medical profession is a case in point. When the primary grade of teachers' non-professional certificates was abolished we certainly moved forward, but the advance has not been as great as some of us at the time expected. We have found that it was impossible to add at once a full year to the teachers' course. We may, I believe, take it for granted in this discussion that the standard of admission to the profession cannot be changed by any sudden increase in the length of time required in preparation for a teacher's certificate.

What then, under existing conditions, should be the academic training of the Public School teacher?

The teacher appears to stand in an intermediate position, between the child and the subjects of the curriculum. To determine his qualifications, then, is to determine the relation of these subjects both to himself as a teacher, and to the child.

It is generally acknowledged by all educators that the child's school education should have its beginning in the experience of the child and should take into account his present inclinations and purposes? It should begin when he first consciously goes over his past experiences with a view of giving them fuller meaning, and should proceed by the development of experience into experience.

Now what are the values of the subjects of the curriculum to the teacher in this relation to this educational process? They serve two purposes, (1) interpretation, (2) guidance.

The subjects themselves being the systematized and formulated experiences of the race, give the teacher the means of interpreting the various phases of the mental life of the child at the different stages of his developing experience.

They are also the means by which the teacher can guide the pupil in the development of his experience. In the continued reconstruction of experience, there is a constant interaction between the instinctive impulses and habits of the child and presented stimuli. The subjects of study furnish stimuli, and it is through controlling the subjects the teacher becomes a guide to the pupil in the development of his experience. But it is only within certain well marked and clearly defined limits that the teacher controls the direction and quality of the changing experiences. The stimuli presented at each stage must be such as the child at this juncture will select and respond to. Otherwise the presented material is not assimilated by the child and does not become an integral part of his expanding consciousness.

To determine, therefore, the work of the teacher is to determine the nature of the child's activity, and the direction and momentum of its movements.

Without entering upon the subject in detail, it may be noted that, regarded from the standpoint of the growth of the child's knowledge, two types, an earlier and a later, may be recognized in the process of the development of experience.

1. *Earlier or Practical Type.* That in which, in the pursuit of practical ends, the child learns without any purpose or intention of learning.

2. *Later or Theoretical Type.* That in which, in the course of his experience, the child is brought into consciousness of problems involving intellectual ends to be reached.

Now these are the two phases of all normal learning; and the problems of subject matter, as well as of method, is the problem of preserving and directing the enquiring attitude of the child.

It is just at this point that the method of beginning the child's school education by teaching him Reading, Writing and Numbers as separate subjects, complicates the solution of this problem; because, as it is not a development of his present experience, it tends to give rise to a third type of learning which is a perversion or distortion

of the second type—one in which the child is conscious not of an end, either practical or theoretical, to be reached, but of the fact that he is learning something, or that he is preparing a task. This substitutes an end in the teacher's mind for a real end which the child is interested in, and which he desires to realize. In other words, it makes no use of, and tends to destroy the enquiring attitude of the child.

School education should begin where the child is and make use of the tendencies as well as the capacities of the child.

What are the ends which the child at entrance to school desires to realize? In general terms, they are, as we have said, practical rather than abstractly intellectual. They have reference to things which he desires to do, to hear, to see, to feel, etc. In a word they are connected more or less directly with his active powers and sense activity. The impulse to form imagery and give motor expression to it is dominant.

If then the enquiring attitude of the child is to be preserved, if there is not to be a real gap in his mental life, if education is to be really a continuous reconstruction of experience, school training must take into account the tendency of the child to form and define imagery, and the subject-matter of instruction should be of such a character as to extend and define his imagery. It should include the subjects which tend to enrich his consciousness, to give quality and content to his experiences.

Without entering upon any minute classification of subjects, or attempting to discuss the basis of a satisfactory correlation, let me in a general way say that these requirements demand that on the one hand the subjects should embrace studies in the two realms which can be distinguished but not separated, the world of nature and the world of man's thought achievement—Science, History and Literature; and, on the other hand, those studies which include the various modes of expression as Written Language, Drawing, Painting, constructive work, as well as form and number.

If this view of primary education is correct, what then must be the qualifications of the Public School teacher?

I. A Training in Elementary Science or Nature Study.

He must first have some general knowledge of the world of nature which forms the child's physical environment, that is, he must have an elementary and above all a practical knowledge of the natural and physical sciences.

This does not mean that the young pupil is to be taught Botany, Natural History, Physics and Chemistry as such.

At this stage the child has not yet reached the point at which he marks off the various phases of experience as separate subjects. With him at first experience is a vague unity-in-difference. The ends which he seeks are mainly centred in his own activity, and have for himself no clearly defined relation. His interests, as they appear to the onlooker are manifold and diverse. The teacher's work, then, is not so much to give information upon differentiated and specialized subjects as to transform the child's instinctive impulses into habits of observation and investigation, to preserve his natural interests, and to fill out in an orderly way his consciousness. To do this work, to interpret the child's manifestations of activity, to guide him in his efforts to bring distinctness and unity into the ever-increasing complexity of experience, the teacher must have some general knowledge of the physical world in which the child is endeavoring to make himself at home. I say, must have *some* knowledge. If I were speaking of an ideal system I should say, must have an extended knowledge of all the physical and natural sciences; because, as Dr. Dewey says, "The whole world of visual nature is all too small an answer to the problem of the child's instinct for light and form. The entire science of Physics is none too much to interpret adequately to us what is involved in some simple demand of the child for explanation of some casual change that has attracted his attention." While these qualifications are ideal, and not to be attained in our time, yet this much can be said with confidence. The teacher who is without a fairly general knowledge of Elementary Science is quite helpless as a guide in all methods of instruction which tend to take advantage of and preserve the natural enquiring attitude of the child. He at best can be but a routine formalist whose influence upon developing children is deadening.

I include in Elementary Science, or Nature Study, subjects which have usually had an independent place, for example, Geography and Physiology. These subjects, in their earlier stages, should be regarded mainly as a part of the observational investigation of nature.

II. A Training in History and Literature.

In regard to the other realm of knowledge, that which more directly pertains to man, it need not be maintained here that it

forms a world which is as real, and which, at its own time in his development, appeals as strongly to the dawning impulses of the child as the world of nature. But these worlds are not independent. They cannot be opposed. The sciences themselves have values chiefly when considered from the social standpoint; and man's experience of enduring value, recorded in History and expressed in Literature and Art, are intimately connected with his efforts to control nature and use it as an instrument in the realization of social and spiritual ends.

It is needless to present arguments for giving History and Literature a place on the teacher's non-professional course, because these subjects have for years been obligatory for all grades of teachers' certificates. But in regard to History especially, it may be pertinent to enquire whether the History required is of the kind most useful to the elementary teacher. Should not History, which is at once a record and an outcome of social experience, be of value to the young child at the very beginning of his efforts to give significance to his social experiences? Is not the first form and not the third the place for the introduction of History?

If this view be correct, and I am convinced that it is, the history, presented to the beginner cannot be of the differentiated and specialized kind. The teacher who would attempt to teach the young child English or Canadian history, as such, would meet with exactly the same difficulty, already considered, which confronts the Nature Study teacher who endeavors to teach specialized sciences.

What is required of the teacher, if he is to be a guide to the young student in his instinctive endeavor to find some meaning in what to him is the confusion of the multiplicity of existing social institutions, is some knowledge of general history, especially of primitive peoples, because with primitive man civilization is reduced to its lowest terms, and its complexity is thus the more easily resolved.

III. A Training in the English Language.

Regarding the next group of subjects suggested—the various modes of expression—little need be said of the study of English Language. We all, I believe, fully recognize the importance of English composition, and the subject of English grammar has received lately its full share of public discussion.

IV. A Training in Drawing and Painting.

We also are coming to recognize the importance of a preparation for teaching drawing as a means of expression; but in passing I desire to note one phase of the subject, which deserves emphasis, viz., the necessity for training teachers in brush and color work. Color is one of the first phases of objects that appeal to children: and it is found that they make most rapid progress in the delineation of objects by beginning color in the lowest grades.

V. A Training in Constructive Work.

I now approach a subject which has caused considerable discussion in Ontario during the last three years, that of Manual Training, Domestic Science and other forms of constructive work. I can add nothing to the various arguments that have from time to time been advanced in favor of these subjects; nor is it necessary to review these arguments in detail. But one feature of the relation of these subjects to the Public Schools needs at this time to be made prominent. If they are to be of real value, they must not be isolated from other subjects and given an external and mechanical position. Indeed, if we were striving to reach a rational basis of correlation of studies, we should probably find that this group of subjects must be given a central place; because subjectively they appeal to the most universal and central of the instinctive tendencies of the child—the tendency to motor expression—and objectively they are types of the processes which make social life what it is. They connect the social life of the school with the social life of the world.

Much of what the child desires to know is connected with what he wishes to do, and every act of doing leads to new knowledge. Doing and learning are correlative.

If then it is admitted, and it must be, that education should begin where the child is and take advantage of his growth-tendencies, the possibilities of developments inherent in his experiences, teachers must be trained to utilize his constructive activities. What is required is, in my opinion, not so much the training of specialists to take charge of isolated manual training classes in the higher forms of the Public Schools, as a preparation on the part of *all* teachers for combining constructive work with all the exercises in all the grades of the school.

VI. Training in Form and Number.

Of these subjects little need be said. The non-professional requirements in Mathematics have been in many respects more satisfactory than those of most of the other departments. Many years ago, thanks mainly to the efforts of Dr. McLellan, Mathematics was given a prominent place among the obligatory subjects. The amount and kind of work prescribed has, on the whole, been satisfactory; but in some branches of this department, especially in Arithmetic, changes in the line of meeting more fully the requirements of the teacher might be considered. I have reference more particularly to the advisability of giving more attention to the theory of Arithmetic. The teacher certainly should have an explicit conception, at any rate, of some of the simpler of the fundamental principles involved in number.

This completes what I consider under our present conditions should be the minimum non-professional qualification for the lowest grade of Public School teachers' certificates.

Now it remains to ask what is the present situation in Ontario? It may be briefly characterized:

1. Apart from the professional requirements for kindergartens we have not demanded any qualification of the teacher in the direction of enabling him to utilize the constructive activities of the child.

2. The prescribed courses in Science, part of which have been optional and part obligatory, have been inadequate for training teachers to do the kind of nature work I have described.

3. The amount and kind of work required in Drawing has also been unsatisfactory.

4. Although the outlines of the courses of study in the other subjects have, as I have stated, on the whole been satisfactory, yet the academic attainments of the students entering the teaching profession have not met the technical requirements of the teacher. This opinion is confirmed by the almost universal testimony of training teachers and inspectors. An imperfect knowledge of subjects is not confined to any one department, nor is it a characteristic of but a few students.

This is the situation as I see it. That the situation is a most serious one, all who know best the conditions of our public schools must admit. The most hopeful sign of improvement is that the Minister of Education appears to be convinced of its seriousness and is attempting to apply a remedy.

Manual Training, Household Science, Nature Study and Art have places in the new curriculum; but the prescribing of a course of study will not bring about a revolution at once. There will, no doubt, at first be serious misconceptions of the nature, place and methods of teaching these subjects. Energy will be misdirected. There will be conflict among leaders, each of whom will contend that he alone possesses the true secret of his art. In fact the signs of such conflict are not wanting now. Opposition will be met, and the weaknesses and absurdities of new methods stated and magnified. All forward movements pass through these stages. But a beginning has to be made and in beginning late we shall at least have the advantage of profiting by the experience of other countries.

The evils in our Public Schools arising from the imperfect preparation of teachers in the ordinary subjects of study can, I believe, be more easily and quickly remedied. In fact, the Minister's proposal to readjust the curriculum and raise the standard will go far in that direction.

The present state of affairs is, to a great extent, the result of combining the teachers' non-professional examinations with those instituted for other purposes. This has affected the teacher's standing in two ways.

1. It has lowered the examination standards.
2. It has widened the curriculum and thus dissipated the student's energies.

A large portion of the students' time in preparation for a Junior Leaving certificate has been taken up with subjects which do not bear directly on the work which the teacher is called upon to do, and which, as pursued by him, have but little value from the standpoint of general culture. Latin furnishes the best example.

The testimony of students goes to show that more time is devoted to the study of Latin than to any other subject required for the examination. It is probably no exaggeration to say that from one-fourth to one-third of the students' time during the last year at the High School is given to Latin.

Now, so far as I am capable of judging of the results of training, as seen in the students who come to us, the value of the subject to them from the point of view of usefulness as a public school teacher is not at all commensurate with the expenditure of time.

The conditions under which the subject is usually pursued in preparing for a Junior Leaving certificate are prejudicial to a

proper study of Latin. In almost every Latin class in the province will be found a number of pupils—frequently the majority of the class—who have begun the subject late, and who desire to be possessed of, as they usually put it, “just enough Latin to pass for a teacher’s certificate.” Most of the master’s time must, therefore, be taken up in giving special grinds. The work is thus rendered distasteful to those who have a real aptitude for classical study and who would specially profit by it; while the training which the others receive must, from the very nature of the case, be nearly valueless. More than eighty-five per cent. of the students in attendance at the London Normal School have informed me that, through lack of time and over-pressure of work, their translations of Latin authors into English were either systematically supplied them by their teachers, or obtained by them from keys. This is probably a fair representation of the state of affairs in the Province. When such methods are followed, the value which comes to the student even in the earlier stages of a rational study of Latin is lost and the pernicious habit of depending on external aids is formed.

The question at issue is not the desirability of a broad and liberal education for teachers, nor is it the value of Classics as a means to this end. About the first question there can be no doubt, and most of us probably would concede all that classical men claim for the liberalizing effects of classical study.

But it is useless to waste time in discussing the ideal when, according to present conditions and limitations, our lowest grade teachers are sadly wanting in even the technical knowledge necessary for their calling. Under the circumstances the discussion in vague generalities of the narrowing tendencies of a limited programme, or the culture value of the study of Latin, does not bear directly on the concrete problem set us for solution.

Nor is the argument that a study of the Classics is necessary to the understanding of English relevant to the discussion. It may be granted that a study of Latin and Greek is necessary to a complete understanding of the structure of the English language, to the fullest appreciation of English literature, or to the formation of a polished English style, yet it does not follow that a student at the Junior Leaving stage will have his knowledge of English materially improved by the study of Latin as he pursues it. Even in the matter of the derivation of English words, so often instanced in this connection, we found by repeated tests that the Second Class teacher’s Latin is of but little use to him. A few weeks’ study of

the old-fashioned Latin roots is shown to be more effective in this direction.

It is claimed by some that Latin should be a part of the Junior Leaving examination course, because Second Class teachers may be required to teach Latin in Public Schools. The answer to this argument is given in a sentence by one of our most experienced principals and successful classical teachers. He says: "It must be admitted by every High School teacher of Classics that untold mischief is being done wherever Latin is being taught by a Second Class teacher in a Public School."

This not only completely answers the argument, but confirms the view that classical attainments of Second Class teachers are decidedly meagre. It also shows the classical man's attitude to accuracy of scholarship as a qualification for teaching in his own department. But it must be admitted that accuracy is just as necessary in other departments.

The question is, why should so much of the student's time be taken up in obtaining a superficial knowledge of Latin which is admittedly worthless as a preparation for teaching the subject, while he is lacking both in breadth and accuracy of scholarship in those subjects which, from the nature of the child and his social requirements, he must teach in an elementary school?

If it can be shown that under present limitations we can have this necessary accuracy of scholarship and, at the same time, can secure for our teachers of the lowest grades an appreciable measure of that wider culture which undoubtedly results from the proper study of a foreign language, there can be no possible excuse for dropping Latin from the list of obligatory subjects for teachers' certificates.

At the present time I believe that it is quite impossible to meet these conditions. At least two years would have to be added to the time demanded of a candidate in preparation for a Junior Leaving certificate. For reasons I have already noted this, in my opinion, cannot be done.

But a readjustment of the curriculum alone will not bring about the desired results. The examination standard must also be raised. The necessity for this is so apparent that it is useless to discuss it.

I am often told, especially by inspectors, that the non-professional requirements for admission to the teaching profession are not so high as they were twenty-five years ago. Making due

allowance for our innate tendency to idealize the past, I am convinced that in one particular at any rate there is some truth in these statements, in so far as they apply to first and second class teachers. The difference is not to be found in the superiority of the curriculum of that day over the present one. In many respects, especially in the English and Science departments, it was inferior to it. But the examination tests at the time referred to were relatively more severe, and the candidates who passed showed a perseverance and practical power in overcoming difficulties wanting, I am inclined to believe, in the majority of our students to-day. These tests were more severe mainly on account of the higher percentages required in individual subjects and groups of subjects, and because the standard set was maintained. Examiners had not as yet learned to be sensitive to the appeals of the weak, nor had the scheme for overcoming the difficulties of special papers by percentage bonuses been devised.

Although I have been demanding for the teacher a high standard of proficiency in what I have repeatedly termed the technical requirements of his profession, yet it must not be supposed that I have in reality been advocating for him a training that can, in the strict sense of the term, be called narrow. In this particular the professional requirements of the teacher differ widely from those of other callings. The teacher's own gifts and powers are akin to those of the child, the condition and processes of his own development are governed by the same laws, and the ends to be fulfilled in his own life are to be attained by the conception and realization of the same universal ideals; hence the subjects I have named, Science, History, Literature, Language, Art and Mathematics, which have value for the teacher in interpreting and guiding the developing experience of the child, because they embody the permanent and enduring experience of the race in their efforts, strivings and successes from generation to generation, are the same which must be of value to himself in his own struggles for intellectual and spiritual freedom.

THE AUTHORIZATION OF TEXT-BOOKS.

W. J. ROBERTSON, B.A., LL.B., ST. CATHARINES.

Perhaps no department of human affairs gives rise to more difficult problems than that of Education. As soon as people become alive to its importance the difficulties begin to appear. In a stagnant condition of things, it is different, for few are interested enough to ask questions, point out defects, or demand reforms. The wheels of progress are at a standstill, or they are running smoothly in a well-worn rut—necessarily they encounter no obstacles, and experience no unpleasant jars.

It is one of these difficulties I am asked to discuss. It is a delicate question, and no one seems very anxious to deal with it, and that is how it has fallen to my lot. It happens that the writer has a slight acquaintance with the subject, although not so extensive as some of my audience may imagine. I hope, however, I shall be able to deal impartially with the question.

The authorization of text-books is a matter of much interest to three parties—the authors, the publishers and the general public. I am on safe ground when I take the position that the rights and interests of the first two should give way to those of the third. By the third I understand teachers, pupils, parents; in fact, all who are interested in furnishing the best possible education that circumstances will admit. Every citizen is, or should be, interested in educational affairs, for everyone is directly or indirectly affected by them. But it does not follow that because the rights of the public are safeguarded, therefore the rights of authors and publishers must suffer. The author has his rights and the publishers theirs, but they are not necessarily in conflict with those of the public. I propose, then, in the brief discussion it will be possible for me to give this topic, to view the matter from the standpoint of what is for the best interests of education, and therefore for the public.

At least three different methods have been tried in the authorization of text-books. The first method places the matter entirely under the control of the Government, which may consult or may not, at pleasure, those considered qualified to express an opinion. The second method entrusts the task to a committee or council, which must bear the responsibility of making selections. The third leaves the matter of selection to trustees or teachers, who

may act as they think best. It is also evident there may be devices which combine some of the features of two or more of these methods. In fact, the solution now offered by the Education Department does combine some of the features of these different methods, for the Government *may*, not *must*, refer the works to be examined to a committee after they have passed the ordeal of public criticism at the hands of the teaching profession. In the final analysis it will be found that the power of selection is still in the hands of the Education Department, if it chooses to exercise its authority. It may, however, place that responsibility upon the committee, which, in turn, may pay some deference to the opinion of the teachers who have been consulted. If we examine these different methods referred to, there seems to be serious objections to each one. If the Government undertakes to make the selection, it is liable to be blamed for indulging in personal or political favoritism, although it may have exercised great care, and have consulted those best fitted to give an opinion. In fact, it should be known that this procedure has been adopted by the Education Department, and books have been accepted only when strongly approved by competent critics. It is, of course, possible that favoritism may be practised; in fact, has been practised, to the injury of education. Members of governments are only human—they have their likes and dislikes, and sometimes we fancy they are unduly influenced by those having close official or political relations with them. Besides the influences that may be brought to bear upon a government in the interests of would-be authors, there is the still more potent influence of the publisher. This latter influence is likely to be much more powerful than any that can be exercised by a teacher, and the reason is so obvious that it is not necessary to explain the statement.

A Government, then, that is anxious to do right and protect the public from imposition, must feel keenly the position in which it is placed by being held responsible for the authorization of our Public and High School texts. Looking around for some avenue of escape it may fall back upon the principle of appointing a committee which shall be responsible for the unpleasant task. The selection of such a committee must be, however, a matter of some difficulty. To choose a man because he happens to be the Chairman of some Public or High School Association, or because he is the representative of the High School masters on the

University Senate, or for any other reason of like character, is no guarantee at all that he is competent for the task of selecting the most suitable text-book on a given subject. Men are chosen for these positions for many reasons other than their peculiar fitness for choosing suitable texts. In fact, good-natured indifference often allows these offices to go to men with no remarkable educational qualifications. Then the *personnel* of these offices is subject to frequent change, and a fit and proper person may be followed by one peculiarly unfit. It may happen, too, that the men thus chosen are interested in text-books themselves—that is, they may be authors who wish to retain their own works on the authorized list, or else have them so placed. These, and other considerations which probably suggest themselves to you, do not furnish much encouragement for the belief that a committee thus constituted is likely to bring more satisfactory results than the plan hitherto adopted. A committee, to be of any value, ought to be chosen for the special qualifications of its members, and these members should not have any interest, direct or indirect, in the authorization of text-books. Further, they should be men of such high character as to be absolutely proof to the seductive influences of publishers.

It may seem to you that undue importance is attached to the probable actions of that very important and useful body in the community, viz., the book publishers. These gentlemen are like other men engaged in trade, commerce and manufactures, keenly alive to their own interests, and it is their business to make as much money as they can. Many make it their policy to deal honorably and fairly by their customers and the public—some are not so scrupulous. It is the unscrupulous publisher that is to be considered in all proposals relating to authorization. He is the man that is prepared to unduly influence governments, members of committees and councils, trustees and teachers, if by so doing he can fill his pockets and become a millionaire, and perchance ultimately a philanthropist. We have had some experience in the past of the operations of the persistent agent of the publisher, and it is not pleasant to contemplate the influences that may be brought to bear to secure the election of friends of would-be-authors and the publishers of their works. Unless much greater care be taken than is now exercised, the selection of our presiding officers and representatives will be marked by the familiar tactics of the ward politician and the political caucus.

The average teacher is a guileless person, and is easily induced, through sheer good-nature or indifference, to support any candidate who may directly, or through an interested agent, solicit his vote. It is not necessary to dwell at any length on this phase of the new situation, for it does not require a vivid imagination to fill in the repulsive details of the picture.

There remains to be considered the plan of leaving the selection of suitable texts to teachers and trustees. Here again we encounter many of the difficulties already indicated. In addition, we would have the evil of a too great variety, and probably too many changes in some quarters and too few in others. Some Boards of Education, moved by the desire for economy, would be too slow in making needful changes—others might be rash in making changes when not necessary. A pupil, if resident in one village, township or city, would have to use Mr. A's geography or arithmetic. Should he be compelled to change his habitation he would find a totally different set of books would be needed. Then, again, the field for the sale of text-books is yet limited in Canada—our population in Ontario is comparatively small, and publishers would require higher prices for their books than is now charged, under a monopoly restricted in its operations by the Government. Publishers, too, would be disposed to favor the productions of authors whose official positions gave them the necessary influence to get their works favorably considered, and thus really deserving men would find it impossible to secure a publisher at all. On the other hand the competition that would be called forth, would compel the publishers to give us texts decently bound, printed on good paper and fairly well illustrated. Although the art of book-making from the mechanical side has well nigh reached perfection (in some countries), it cannot be said that in Canada we have kept pace with the advances of recent years. The Canadian author is, in consequence, now severely handicapped by the unattractive form of his printed product.

I am conscious, in looking over what I have written, that little but what is destructive has been advanced. Yet what we need is not destructive but constructive criticism. I do not know that I can suggest any method which would be a marked improvement on the present system, but I would offer the following as a tentative scheme :

1. Let Public School books be authorized only on their approval by a committee chosen for their experience and special fitness for

the task. The members of this committee should be teachers proof against the seductions of interested authors and publishers, and should have no direct or indirect interest in the preparation or publication of Public School texts.

2. High School and Collegiate Institute text-books might be left to the choice of trustees and teachers, the choice to be made from a limited number recommended by a committee of experts. Perhaps all that would be necessary in the case of books required for the middle and upper schools would be to place in the course of study the limits of subjects prescribed and leave the selection of suitable texts to the trustees and teachers. Our present experience would lead us to believe that the best works would, in the long run, supersede the inferior. The one drawback to the success of this proposal would be the possibility, or probability, of frequent changes of the course of study, thus deterring both author and publisher from expending the time, labor and money necessary to the production of a good book. The changes in the curriculum, by which the monotony of teaching is now relieved, although, no doubt, it is the evidence of a striving after perfection, is a serious drawback to the production of texts of more than temporary value.

Perhaps, if a comparatively free hand were given to the teachers in our secondary schools in selecting text-books, and the results were satisfactory, it might be found practicable and advisable to extend the same privilege to the teachers in the senior forms of our Public Schools. One thing seems certain, that is, we have reached that stage in our educational development when greater freedom must be given our teachers in carrying on their work, and along with this freedom must go the permission and power to recommend suitable text-books. But the change from a system of artificial restriction to one of greater liberty, involving a deeper sense of responsibility on the part of the teaching profession, should be a gradual one, and therefore we might begin with High School text-books, and extend the system to the Public Schools if it be found that no serious results of an evil character should follow. The present and future rapid growth of our population in Canada will give a wider field for the abilities and enterprise of authors and publishers, and eventually permit of freer and more healthy competition than now is possible.

MODERN LANGUAGE SECTION.

GERMAN IMMIGRATION TO AMERICA.

G. H. NEEDLER, PH.D., TORONTO.

As a nation Germany calls forth pity and admiration: pity, for the sufferings oft renewed that she has had to endure; admiration, for the immense reserve of vitality which has not only made it possible for her to survive all adversity, but in our own day to appear before the world again in the fresh vigor of youth. Throughout her life, too, she has presented the spectacle of a nation intellectually most progressive and free, politically retrograde and dominated by a host of petty despots. At the time of the discovery of America she was on the eve of a great awakening. She was about to emancipate herself and Europe intellectually, though she herself was destined to suffer woefully and, through sheer exhaustion in the struggle, to sacrifice her political liberty for many generations to come. Luther, the central figure in that great movement in which so many varied forces were let loose, was nine years old when Columbus crossed the Atlantic. Twenty-five years later he had formulated those principles which were to divide Europe into two hostile camps, and indeed, ere long, into many more warring elements. In the year 1517 Luther's act was nothing more than the assertion of the right of the individual to have his own independent opinion in matters of conscience. It took one hundred and thirty-one years to settle the question whether a man had this right or not, for only after this long period of war, patched-up peace, fresh outbreaks of hostilities, renewed attempts at compromise, was peace finally arrived at in 1648. No less than thirty years of unbroken warfare, and that, too, of the most awful kind, mark the close of the conflict. And peace, such as it was, for Germany, came then not from any real wish for it, but owing to the sheer exhaustion of the opposing forces. The world hardly presents a parallel to the devastation wrought in Germany during this Thirty Years' War. From Brandenburg to Bavaria, from the Palatinate to Bohemia, few square miles of territory could be found

in 1648 in which fire, plunder, rapine and all the unspeakable horrors of war had not transformed the peaceful dwelling-places of men into a desolate waste. War was then chiefly a system of organized plunder. In the closing years of the Thirty Years' War the actual fighting men of the army were only a fraction, as a rule about one-third, of the lawless host of camp followers, abandoned women and professional booty grabbers, before whom even the peace loving non-combatant peasants, wherever they passed or made their winter-quarters, fell mercilessly a prey. It is estimated that during those thirty years nearly seventy-five per cent. of the total population of Germany was swept from the face of the earth.

We are now within a generation of the time when Germans first began to emigrate in large numbers to America, and it is not difficult to comprehend the eagerness of many, nay, the absolute necessity for self-preservation, to seek an asylum elsewhere. The cause was partly political, partly religious. By the definite terms of the Peace of Westphalia Catholicism and Protestantism in central Europe reached a compromise. Speaking generally, the northern half of Germany had become Protestant, the southern half remained Catholic, and the numerous states agreed officially not to molest each other. This did not mean religious freedom for the individual citizen of each state. He had to conform to the official religion of his state or, if he wished, was allowed to migrate to the dominions of a ruler belonging to the confession he himself wished to follow.

Politically, Germany was by the war reduced to hopeless weakness. The nation was composed of a vast number of states, each independent within its borders, and there was no strong controlling central power. In France the situation was exactly the reverse. Louis XIV. came to the throne a five-year-old minor in 1643 and by 1661 was ruling with the hand of an absolute and ambitious despot. Soon the whole authority of the state was centred in the royal throne, and France rose to a dominant position among the nations of Europe. The grandeur of his court was unparalleled; and what more natural than that the petty princes of Germany, who were within their own domains just as absolute rulers as Louis, should straightway ape this glittering model. We think involuntarily of the frog in the fable who sought by process of blowing to increase his size to that of the ox, whose magnificent proportions excited the admiration of his impressionable soul. But the inflated frog only hastened his own dissolution; the German

princeling wrecked both himself and his subjects. There are naturally among so many a few pleasing exceptions. The electors of Brandenburg, for instance, who were then laying the foundation for the Prussian kingdom and the restored German empire. But these exceptions were rare. Disorganized and weak, with no controlling central authority, Germany was an inviting prey for the ambitious Louis of France, gradually winning by raids upon his neighbors his title to be called "Le Grand." By a slightly veiled form of robbery he unites piece after piece on the south-western border to his dominions, among these Strassburg in the year 1681. Four years later, on behalf of a dissolute brother who had married a sister of the Elector Palatine, he laid claim to the Palatinate. This unfounded claim led to the war in which England arrayed herself with the German Emperor, Spain, Sweden, Holland and Savoy against him. In order not to leave the fertile Palatinate as a source of strength to his opponents, he laid the whole region waste. Heidelberg was burned to the ground, and its famous Castle partly blown up. Mannheim, Speier, Worms and hundreds of smaller places suffered a like fate.

As far as religion was concerned,—and the long struggle that had ended in 1648 was first of all a religious quarrel—the result was that, though at an awful cost, Protestantism was saved. Freedom of intellect had been asserted and maintained, the atmosphere had been created in which a Leibnitz, a Lessing, a Schiller, a Goethe, a Kant might grow up. Protestantism in its first militant stage is one of the most notable rejuvenations of humanity. But the next stage of *official* Protestantism is not so pleasing a thing to contemplate. The struggle for freedom, wherever it be, is always an inspiring one; the relapse from achieved liberty into a new tyranny is not. But such seems almost of necessity to be the order of human development, particularly on the religious side. From the time of the foundation of Christianity, to speak of none of the other great world-religions, how often this round of evolution has repeated itself. Protestantism in Germany was not to be exempt from the common fate. Even Luther was as intolerant of other forms of Protestantism as he was righteously indignant against the enforcers of orthodoxy upon himself. Once become the official religion, Lutheranism in the North German States began to lose its original vital force; it soon became more intent upon entrenching itself and suppressing new heresies than in advancing true religion.

By the third quarter of the seventeenth century, at all events, the

Lutheran Church had begun to petrify. It had, to quote the words of a prominent German historian, "sunk far down from the lofty spiritual level of the first Reformation. Luther's saying that faith alone brings salvation had gradually been misinterpreted to mean that the number of orthodox articles of creed that one knew by heart and subscribed to, determined the measure of Christian piety; the clergy in the pulpits and the theologians in the University chairs found their chief occupation in determining, by a ceaseless polemic against all heterodox interpretations of Scripture and of the Wittenberg articles, the one creed whereby alone was salvation."

This dogmatism could not satisfy for long the nation that could still look back to the revolt from dogmatism of the century before. The human heart craves for something warmer, more satisfying than that. Often as mankind has wandered off into these blind alleys, there have ever arisen men to lead back to the open road of real religion. The two leaders in this movement in Germany in the second half of the seventeenth century were Philip Jacob Spener and August Hermann Francke, the founders of Pietism. Spener's words in his *Pia Desideria*, a formulation of his ideas upon the nature of true religion, remind us strongly of Luther. The theologians, he says, instead of seeking to turn men from evil, busy themselves with controversies which, by their pedantic sophistry, lead men further away from the simplicity of apostolic times; they force upon poor laymen religious formulas and systems of religion for rules of faith. Like Luther he would have every man search the Scriptures for himself. The orthodox clergy of the Lutheran Church are responsible for the decay of real religion. Spener was the holder of the highest gift in the Lutheran Church of his day; he was chief court preacher in Dresden, and later, when officialdom there became too antagonistic to him, he accepted a similar post in Berlin at the invitation of the Elector of Brandenburg. Francke, Spener's greatest pupil, was of a more militant type and attacked Church formalism and dogmatism with vehemence. By the foundation of the celebrated "Waisenhaus" in Halle, an institution combining charity with instruction in all useful branches of study, and including a printing press, from which were issued the writings of the prominent members of the movement in theology, literature, law and medicine, Francke exerted a wonderful influence that has worked on beneficently ever since. Religion, through Spener and Francke and their fellow-workers, became once more a force in the daily life of men. It would be interesting

to point out further how this Pietistic movement went hand in hand with another movement among the universities and educated classes toward a reform of education, just as Luther's religious reform of the century before had found a powerful ally in the enlightened Humanists. But this would take me too far aside from the subject in hand. The force and lasting influence of the work of Spener and Francke show, however, how fertile was the soil upon which they worked, and how wide spread the longing for a deeper, more real religious life.

Conditions in England at that time present a somewhat similar picture. The people, led by Cromwell, had been victorious in a great struggle against absolutism. For a time the monarchy itself was overturned, and with it the State Church. Upon the ruins of the latter the Presbyterians sought to establish another State Church, not a whit behind its predecessor in point of dogmatism and intolerance of other religious sects. It gave promise of traveling the same road as Lutheranism in Germany. But another turn of fortune's wheel brought the monarchy to the top again, and with it once more the dominance of Anglicanism. Charles II. was restored to the throne in 1660. The Act of Uniformity in 1662 made hard times for the Puritans, and the Conventicle Act of two years later was a like blow at the Nonconformists. The gaols were filled with Puritans and Nonconformists. Piety, unless dressed strictly in the prescribed uniform of state orthodoxy, became a crime. This intolerance fell with especial severity upon the Quakers. By refusing to bear arms and take oaths, and by their extravagance in dress and conduct they had made themselves more than usually liable to attack. Though one of the smallest of the Nonconformist bodies, four thousand, we are told, were soon in prison. But they were a sturdy lot. Among their number, and one of the best of them all, we find a man who is to play a most prominent part in the history of German settlement in America—William Penn. It was through William Penn that Germans were first directed to America as a land of promise and release from bondage, spiritual, social and political. Penn was one of those useful men who refuse to be bullied. Above all was he resolved that in religious matters he should be free. And before he had gone far in life he found that it was necessary, in the England of the seventeenth century, for him who would be free to do some fighting. At the age of seventeen he was "sent down" from Christ Church College, Oxford, for nonconformity. After seeing

something of the world in France and Italy, he held in Ireland the post of victualler of a squadron of the fleet. When upon a visit to Cork he attended a Quaker meeting held by Thomas Loe whose discourses had attracted him in Oxford, and soon became a regular attendant. A little incident in which he figured here is perhaps worth a passing mention as being the first of many such in later life. He ejected one day from the conventicle a soldier who was creating a disturbance. The soldier soon returned with officers of justice who arrested Penn and the other worshippers for holding a tumultuous assembly. Out of respect to Penn's rank the mayor offered him his liberty on condition of giving security for good behavior. This he refused to do, disputed the magistrate's jurisdiction and went to gaol. He was soon released, and his father, the Admiral Sir William Penn, recalled him to London. In spite of his father's remonstrances he now became an avowed Quaker in creed, costume and conduct.

"I never knew that time in England," says Milton, "when men of truest religion were not counted sectaries." Let us add to this: the only logical sectary is a propagandist. With Penn religion had now become a thing of serious, real, vital importance, and at the age of twenty-four we find him expounding his new-found gospel in a tract entitled "Truth Exalted," and beginning to preach. For publishing without license a pamphlet assailing the Athanasian doctrine of the Trinity and other tenets of orthodoxy he was, in December, 1668, committed to the Tower, which continued for seven months to be his lodging-place, until he was liberated through the mediation of the Duke of York (later James II.), who as Lord Admiral befriended Penn's father, the admiral. On two other occasions Penn went to prison, the second time for a period of six months for refusing to take the oath of allegiance.

Upon the death of his father in 1670 Penn became the possessor of an income of £1,500 a year. This accession of wealth and worldly independence seems only to have stimulated his interest in his oppressed Quaker brethren, for now we see him extending his missionary work into Holland and Germany, to which countries he made, along with some friends, three visits in the years 1671, 1674 and 1677. Their object was "to extend the principles and organization of the Quakers in Holland and Germany." Penn's visit coincided, as you see, with the great Pietist movement, of which I have spoken. He found sympathetic groups wherever he sojourned. He says himself: "And I must tell you that there is a breathing,

hungering, seeking people, solitarily scattered up and down the great land of Germany, where the Lord hath sent me." The chief towns in Germany which he visited, and where he sought to give men the consolation of real religion as he saw it, lay along the Rhine valley; those chiefly of interest to us in this connection were: Mülheim-on-the-Ruhr, Frankfurt-on-the-Main, Worms on the Rhine and Kriegsheim, a village not far away. These last two places, Worms and Kriegsheim, seem to mark the most southerly point visited by Penn. It is possible that he held meetings at Krefeld, one of the places from which many of the early settlers came. This town is situated a few miles from the Rhine on the left bank, across from Mülheim. His journeys were probably quite extensive, as on one occasion we find him paying a visit to the Princess Elisabeth, daughter of the unfortunate Elector Frederic V. of the Palatinate, and grand-daughter of James I. of England. She was then residing at Herford in Westphalia, a considerable distance, then, eastward from the Rhine.

The Anglo-Saxon is the world's missionary. Penn in this mission had forerunners in St. Boniface and Alcuin, who, nine hundred years before, crossed from Britain to win the heathen Germans to Christianity. They sought to gather the heathen into the fold of the Church. Penn had the humble mission of uniting together the kindred souls of two nations who found not true religion in the church of the state. It is probable that his meetings were chiefly attended by people of humble life, though, as we shall see presently, not a few persons of education came into touch with his teaching.

Just previously to this last journey to Holland and Germany, Penn had come to have territorial interests in America. Having taken a part in the liquidation of the affairs of one of the proprietors of the province of New Jersey, he became in 1676 one of the trustees of the western half of the province, and settled it largely with Quakers. Soon afterwards he obtained a further grant from the Duke of York of adjoining territory. His most important acquisition, however, and the one in which we are here particularly interested, was made in 1680. His father, the Admiral Sir William Penn, had, at his death ten years before, left him heir to a sum of nearly £16,000 due to him from the crown; and now, in discharge of this debt, the crown grants him an extensive tract of country, west of the Delaware River, which was named in honor of the admiral, "Pensilvania" (so spelt in the charter). As proprietary and governor of the province Penn was invested with

legislative as well as executive power. He got the aid of Algernon Sydney in framing at once a constitution and code of laws for his colony, couched in very democratic terms. The governor was to exercise his legislative and executive powers with the advice and consent of a provincial council chosen by ballot by the freemen. Besides this council of seventy-two members, a general assembly, elected annually, was to have the approval or rejection of bills passed by the council, and powers of amendment; all cases were to be tried by jury, fees were to be moderate, oaths dispensed with; all modes of religious worship compatible with monotheism and Christian morality were to be tolerated.

Penn came himself to America in October, 1682. Within a fortnight he had marked out the site of the future city of Philadelphia.

No sooner had Penn received his grant of this land in America than, with business enterprise, he set about advertising it as an attractive place for settlers. Our immigration office might take lessons from him. His account of the new province was at once translated into German under the title "*Eine Nachricht wegen der Landschaft Pennsilvania in America.*" Pamphlets and books by Penn and his Quaker friends followed in great numbers, setting forth the advantages of his newly-acquired territory (while at the same time others also appeared attacking the Quakers and their doings). By his missionary visits personally, however, Penn had made his influence felt among the Germans suffering from religious and political intolerance, and these accounts were eagerly read. One of his fellow-workers who was also laboring in Germany, Benjamin Furley, established two regular companies, one at Krefeld and another at Frankfurt, to act as immigration centres. Penn tells how that at Frankfurt "people of considerable note, both of Calvinists and Lutherans," received them "with gladness of heart and embraced our testimony with a broken and reverent spirit." Among these we find the names of Dr. Wilhelm Petersen and his wife, Johanna Eleonora von Merlan (extracts from whose letters are given by Freytag, as valuable documents of the time, in his "*Bilder aus der deutschen Vergangenheit*"), as well as others of more or less prominence among the Pietists.

At this point there comes upon the scene the man who deserves to be held in honor as the patriarch of Germans in America, Francis Daniel Pastorius. He is "The Pennsylvania Pilgrim" of Whittier's pleasing and lengthy poem of that title. Pastorius was a man of vast, though it would appear not perfectly digested, learning. He

had studied at the universities of Strassburg, Basel, Erfurt, Jena and Altorf, taking a degree in law at the last-named place in 1675 and receiving the degree of Doctor of Law at Nürnberg in the following year. After extensive travels in Holland, England, France and Switzerland he came to Frankfurt. It was here that he became deeply interested in the teachings of Spener, the celebrated originator of the Pietist movement, and fell in with the members of the Frankfurt Company. In an autobiographical memoir, he says: "Upon my return to Frankfurt in 1682, I was glad to enjoy the company of my former acquaintances and Christian friends, Dr. Schütz, Eleonora von Merlan, and others, who sometimes made mention of William Penn, of Pennsylvania, and showed me letters from Benjamin Furley, also a printed relation concerning said province; finally the whole secret could not be withholden from me that they had purchased twenty-five thousand acres of land in this remote part of the world. Some of them entirely resolved to transport themselves, families and all.* This begat such a desire in my soul to continue in the society, and with them to lead a quiet, godly and honest life in a howling wilderness, that by several letters I requested of my father his consent." Soon he had visited Kriegsheim and Krefeld, conferring with the leaders in these places, and become a regular agent of the intending settlers. Pastorius crossed the ocean in advance of the others, setting sail on June 6th, 1683, and arriving in Philadelphia on August 16th. Before he had reached this side of the Atlantic (there was plenty of time, as his voyage lasted ten weeks), thirteen men with their families, chiefly weavers from Krefeld and belonged to the Mennonite sect, had sailed on board the *Concord*. They landed at Philadelphia on October 6th, 1683. These brave people are the German-American "Pilgrim Fathers," and the ship *Concord*, of happy name, is their *Mayflower*. It was in 1620—sixty-three years before—that the Puritan fathers arrived at Plymouth.

Pastorius and his band were not absolutely the first Germans to come to the American continent. As early as the year 1526, that is, a century and a half before, a settlement had been founded in Venezuela by the agents of a wealthy Augsburg merchant named Welser, who had received a grant of land there from the Emperor Charles V. in discharge of a debt, just as Penn had received his land from Charles II. of England. During the sixteenth and early

*None of these Frankfurters actually came across themselves.

seventeenth century further stations for carrying on trade were occupied by Germans in Cuba, Mexico and particularly Brazil. None of these, however, had been colonists in the true sense of the term. Like the early Spanish, French and English trade adventurers, they sought for wealth to bring back to their native country. The pilgrims of 1683, like the Puritans of the *Mayflower*, severed themselves forever from their native land, where life had been made intolerable to them, and brought with them their wives, their children and their scanty household goods to make for themselves a new home in a forest wilderness. They are of the stuff from which the mighty nation of to-day has been made. Men of high and low degree from all quarters of the old world, millions of them in number, have since come to help in the building of the stately national mansion they began, but it was the brave pioneers of two and three centuries ago who laid its foundations broad and firm.

Pastorius was only thirty-two years old on reaching America. His long university training did not stand in the way of his energetic application to the practical and very rude work of the pioneer. Over the door of the cabin which he built for himself he inscribed the legend: *Parva domus sed amica bonis; procul este profani*. Within a week of the arrival of the *Concord* a warrant was issued to Pastorius for six thousand acres of land; a fortnight later the land had been surveyed and assigned to the settlers, choice of location being arrived at by the drawing of lots. Thus alongside Penn's Philadelphia was laid the foundation of Germantown. I need not recount the story of the hardships of these settlers. From other sources we all know it well, as it only differs in detail from that of the pioneer settlers in our own Province and elsewhere over our continent.

Thus the stream of German immigration to America has its source in the few communities along the Rhine visited by Penn. To what a mighty stream it has swollen in our own day, and what countless thousands of men it has borne hither! At the present time, only two hundred and nineteen years since the founding of Germantown, there are in the United States, as I find by the last census returns, no less than 6,240,000 Germans, of whom 2,667,000 were born in Germany, the remaining 3,573,000 having both parents born in Germany. In these figures, then, are not included those many hundred thousand persons of German blood, either one or both of whose parents were born in America.

This period of two hundred odd years may, for the purposes of

my story, conveniently be divided into two almost equal halves, namely, the period before and the period since the Declaration of Independence in 1776.

From the founding of Germantown in 1683 until the year 1727 no official lists were kept of the immigrants from Germany; but from various sources their numbers and the times of their arrival have been pretty carefully made out. Upon the coming and the subsequent fortunes of the principal groups we have abundant information, and it is only of these larger groups that I can speak in this brief account.

For some years Germantown slowly made its way, with probably only odd accessions from Germany to the number of the original thirteen families of the *Concord*. Pastorius tells how that in the early years people punned upon the name "Germantown," calling it "Armentown," "Poor-town." But with industry came comfort. In course of time the town was incorporated, but so averse, we are told, were these early Germans in America to holding public office, that it proved impossible to fill the municipal posts, and the incorporation was only one in name. Things have changed since then in Philadelphia and other cities of the Union.

The next large body of immigrants came in the year 1694, that is, in the eleventh year *ab urbe condita*. This was a group of religious mystics, to the number of forty, who after a brief stay at Germantown passed on a short distance to settle on the banks of the River Wissahickon. It is evident, from the character of most of the immigrants from Germany in these early days, that it was chiefly religious persecution, or rather stifling religious atmosphere that drove them from their native land. Burdened down by the sufferings of war and misgovernment the common people had sore need of the consolation of a real heart religion. And further, not finding this in the crystallized religion imposed upon them by the state, they were thrown entirely upon themselves. In this way, as a perfectly logical sequel to Protestantism, sprang up a multitude of sects. Those interested in the scientific study of theological evolution may find here a wide field in which to prosecute research. All forms of belief, all confessional vagaries, from sober Mennonism to the most fantastic mysticism, are represented here. And any persecuted sect, whose original beliefs in Europe were of an extravagant type, was sure, when transplanted to the virgin soil of the New World, to show a most exuberant growth. This was the case with this band of mystics who settled upon the Wissahickon,

and the story was repeated many times with only slight difference. The leader in this case was a certain Johann Kelpius. The real originator of the sect, a Würtemberger named Zimmermann, had died just when about to embark at Rotterdam. Kelpius succeeded to the leadership. Like Pastorius, he had enjoyed a university education and was a man of extensive erudition. Through the teaching of Dr. Petersen, of the Frankfurt Company, he seems to have become a Millenarian. The century was nearing its close and Kelpius with his followers looked confidently to the year 1700 to bring in the reign of Christ upon earth for a thousand years. In the forest solitude of Pennsylvania they built for themselves a large log-house, where they lived a severe life of self-discipline, and kept a school to which came the children of many of the German-town families. From a sort of astronomical tower the brethren kept constant watch for signs of the coming of the Lord. These mystics possessed some medical skill, and were credited with many magical powers. They made themselves familiar with the religious practices of the native Indians around them. Altogether Kelpius made a name for himself as an authority on religious questions and was often consulted by people even at great distances. With a reference to Revelations (xii. 14), the community was named "The Woman in the Wilderness." Kelpius was the soul of it, and it declined rapidly after his death. It is interesting to note that at his burial a white dove was set free from his coffin in token of the flight of his soul aloft—a practice which was probably copied from the Indians. The intensity of his faith may be inferred from the fact that he expected to be taken up to heaven like Elijah and was, we are told, bitterly disappointed that the chariot of fire did not appear. Apart from his cabalistic absurdities of religious practice, however, Kelpius seems to have deserved the esteem in which he was held by his fellow-countrymen in Pennsylvania, and Whittier's designation of him as the "maddest of good men."

Following Kelpius and his band of mystics, after a lapse of some fifteen years, comes a body of settlers more numerous than any yet and deserving the name by which it is commonly known—the "Great Exodus" from the Palatinate.

This district known as the Palatinate plays an important rôle in the history of German emigration to America. As early as the year 1214 the Emperor Frederick II. had appointed a Palgrave of the Rhine. By the famous Golden Bull of 1356, one of the leading constitutional landmarks of the empire's history, the Rhine Palatin-

ate was made one of the seven electorates, with a vote, that is, in the election of emperor. Soon after the beginning of the Reformation the territory had become Protestant, and at the outbreak of the Thirty Years' War the Palatine Elector Frederic V., whose wife was Elizabeth, daughter of James I. of England, was chosen by the Protestants of Bohemia to be their king. His career, as we all know, was a brief and unfortunate one. His son had to flee, and his territory was conquered by Tilly, the Bavarian general. At the close of the war in 1648 Bavaria retained the upper portion of it, which forms part of the kingdom of Bavaria at the present day. By the famous partitioning of Germany under Napoleon's directions in 1803, the Grand Duchy of Baden was allowed to round off its territory by incorporating that part of the Palatinate lying on the right bank of the Rhine. The northern parts of the original territory later fell to the share of the growing kingdom of Prussia.

At the close of the seventeenth century the Palatinate was a district of irregular shape, roughly a circle of some seventy-five miles in diameter, chiefly upon the west side of the Rhine, and stretching from near the bend of the river at Bingen upward along its course to a point considerably beyond the ancient city of Speyer. But like all that part of Germany it had scattered up and down within it innumerable little patches of territory independent in themselves, or belonging to adjacent states. So tiny, indeed, were some of them, that if two armies supplied with modern long-range guns were to meet upon them, any ill-aimed cannon-balls would be liable to knock the chimneys off the houses in an adjoining, and perhaps friendly, state.

In all Europe there is perhaps no district to surpass the Palatinate in fertility and picturesque beauty, in all that makes the earth a pleasant place for the dwellings of men. Wide stretches of rolling plain through which flows the storied Rhine, with myriads of fertile vineyards and rising uplands on either side, make the valley of the great river here a veritable paradise. Such a land was a coveted prize for the contending nations, and its situation exposed it to the ravages of war. Many times were town and country laid waste, but never so cruelly as by the order of French Louis XIV. in the year 1688. Feeling his inability to retain the Palatinate, he decided that, at all events, it should be no source of strength to his enemies.

Up to the year 1697, when the treaty of Ryswick brought a

temporary lull, and then again during the War of the Spanish Succession from 1701 to 1714, the Palatinate remained desolate and literally between two fires. By his victories at Blenheim, Ramillies and Oudenarde, Marlborough had made the name of England dear to the people of the Palatinate who had had such bitter experiences of the cruelty of Louis XIV. In the year 1708, sixty-one Lutherans from Landau, led by their pastor the Rev. Josua von Kocherthal, fled to England. Here they were treated kindly by Queen Anne, who gave them money and free transport to New York. They settled on the west branch of the Hudson, a few miles above the present West Point, where the town of Newburg, named by them after Neuburg, the seat of the reigning family in the Palatinate, still tells us of their settlement, though now almost all other traces of them have vanished.

The following winter (1708-09) was one of fearful severity in Europe, and this added materially to the miseries of the distressed people of the Palatinate, and of the neighboring Würtemberg, which had been one of the principal scenes of the war. Many causes thus combined to produce in this year the "Great Exodus" of the Palatines and Würtembergers. Though strenuous efforts were made by the Dutch authorities at Rotterdam, through which city they naturally passed, yet these poor starving human beings had reached the point of desperation, and refused to be turned back. By the end of October, we are told, no less a number than some 15,000 of them had reached London. This, like the flight of thousands into exile on the revocation of the Edict of Nantes a few years before, is one of those pictures in the history of humanity the contemplation of which makes us blush for our kind.

Ship-load after ship-load of these penniless people was landed in England. It was a problem to know what to do with them. Queen Anne, however was well-disposed. At Blackheath and other points in the neighborhood of London they were encamped, military tents from the Tower being supplied for many. Straw was provided once a fortnight for sleeping on. Considerable money was given them from the royal purse, as well as a supply of Bibles. Bishop Burnet worked diligently in their behalf. In addition to the sum of about £2,000 raised by various charitable schemes, appropriations for sustenance, transportation, etc., were made by Parliament to the extent of £135,000 (more than half a million dollars). London opinion, however, was not uniformly friendly. Dean Swift, for instance, speaks of the "Pala-

tines, who understood no trade nor handicraft, yet rather chose to beg than labor, who besides infesting our streets, bred contagious diseases by which we lost in natives twice the number of population gained in foreigners." The Palatine camp on Blackheath was indeed one night attacked by a mob of about 2,000 Londoners and suffered much abuse. The Palatines were, by the ignorant, suspected of being Catholics, and Catholics were not in high favor in England just at that moment. Anxious to make some settlement of their case, Queen Anne offered five pounds a head to any one who would take the Palatines and settle them in England. The offer did not prove a tempting one. As a next step, the Catholics among them were offered the alternative of becoming Protestants or being sent back to Germany. Five hundred changed their religion, while 3,500 were returned to their native land. It was proposed to settle some in the Scilly Islands, but the inhabitants there pleaded sufficient poverty already. Ireland was chosen as the next dumping-ground. It turned out a very suitable one, for about 3,800 of the Palatines were taken over and settled in the neighborhood of Limerick, where their industry soon turned an uninviting territory into happy homes. The greater part of them were by trade linen-weavers, and helped on this important Irish industry. It is worth noting that from this settlement, which Wesley visited, came to America Philip Embury and his cousin, Barbara Heck, the founders of Methodism on this continent. The next batch was sent to America, and it is those whose fortunes interest us here.

Kocherthal's successful colony on the Hudson the year before, and also the presence of some visiting Mohawk chiefs in London, who were shown the Palatine camp, were additional reasons why New York should be thought of. This time it was hoped to turn the labor of the Palatines to the profit of the nation. Tar and turpentine were needed in great quantities for the navy, and it was thought these could be produced from the forests along the Hudson.

Early in 1710 a fleet of ten ships set sail, having on board about 3,000 of the refugees destined for New York, where they arrived June 13th, minus about one-fifth of their number who had succumbed to the hardships of the ocean voyage. The wreck of one of the ships on the coast of Long Island is the subject of Whittier's poem, "The Palatine." In the autumn of that year they were taken to the places selected for their settlement, namely, East Camp (now Germantown) and West Camp (which still exists), on

either bank of the Hudson, about half way between the present Poughkeepsie and Albany. But the skilful vine-dressers of the Rhine proved ill-adapted to the extraction of turpentine from the pines by the Hudson. Indeed, it seems that they were set to do the impossible, and that the required stores for naval use were not to be produced there in the required quality. Their lot proved an unhappy one, and it is difficult to say whether they or Governor Hunter, of New York, under whose orders they settled, should bear the blame. In England they had been treated with liberality, indeed charity. They received free transportation across the ocean, support for a year after their arrival, together with a supply of tools and building materials. In return the product of their labor was to belong to her Royal Majesty. By the third summer in America they found themselves in an unhappy condition. The scheme for furnishing ship's stores proved visionary, and they considered their treatment too much like that of slaves. Against the order of the Governor a large number of them moved farther up and inland to the valley of the Schoharie, a tributary of the Mohawk, which latter river joins the Hudson from the west at Troy. In the following year, 1713, as many more as could get away from the camps on the Hudson joined them. But here again they had endless bickering over the titles to their land. Many of them, at the Governor's wish, settled along the Mohawk River, where the local names of Palatine Bridge, Herkimer, German Flats, Frankfort and many more, survive as evidence of their presence. Most of the Schoharie settlers, however, having heard of the prosperity of their fellow-countrymen in Penn's province, decided to migrate thither. This they did by a long and what must then have been a difficult and perilous journey through the forest to the head-waters of the Susquehanna and down it by boat. They settled on the outskirts of the colonies already there, at the mouth of the little stream Tulpehocken. This part of the province was later named Berks County and became a thriving centre of German colonization.

Such is, in brief, the story of the "Great Exodus of the Palatines," the most important of the early immigrations. The Palatinate was the home, we are told, only of somewhat more than half of the total in the exodus; the rest came from Darmstadt, Hanau, Franconia, the cities of Worms and Speyer, and a few from Alsace, Baden and other neighborhoods. But to the English all were "Palatines," and in fact, for a time, to all Germans arriving in America the same name was applied.

Religious persecution had made life intolerable for dissenters in Switzerland, as in Germany. The Mennonites, by principle non-combatant, were ejected in large numbers from the republic. Many of them lived for a time in the Palatinate and other parts of Germany, also in Holland, before passing on to America. The years 1709, 1717 and 1726, saw large bodies of Swiss Mennonites arrive in Pennsylvania, where they settled chiefly in the district now known as Lancaster County.

The name of the notorious financier, who about this period turned the head of the French nation, John Law, meets us here. Amongst his many enterprises he induced (probably) some thousand Germans to settle in Louisiana. After they had got nicely settled in the New World, however, Law's financial bubble burst and with it the support of his Louisiana colony. The German settlers tried to get away, but were prevented, and finally made the best of a bad situation and worked their way to some sort of prosperity at a place still called after them, "Côte d'Allemande."

The year 1708 saw the birth in Germany of still another sect of that time so fertile in religious origins. A certain Alexander Mack, a miller of Schwarzenau, came to the conclusion that the Scriptures enjoined total immersion in baptism. From this practice his little sect received the epithet of "Tunkers" or "Dunkers," from the word "tunken," to dip. After some vicissitudes in their native land several of them came to Pennsylvania in 1719, and others again ten years later.

Even the severe and simple life of those Dunkers was not strict enough to suit one Conrad Beissel from the Palatinate, who formed a new sect within the sect. Of all the religious growths amongst Germans on American soil this sect of Beissel's is probably the most fantastically peculiar. He and his followers, men and women, dedicated themselves to a hermit life of single blessedness. They lived in a series of cloisters. The community, later known as Ephrata, was, like the mediæval monasteries, the home of many arts. The brethren and sisters cultivated choral singing, illuminated manuscripts, and had one of the best as well as one of the earliest book presses in America. The severe life seems to have been too great a strain for the founder Beissel, for we are told that on one occasion "he appeared in the likeness of one who is drunk," as the *Ephrata Chronicle* put it. One writer on the subject remarks, "he became a master in this imitation, and on one such occasion fell down the cellar stairs." He is said, also, when thus inspired, to

have written some hymns, which are, according to one critic, as good as those he wrote when in his normal condition.

In the year 1733 still another religious sect contributes to the swelling tide. These are known as Schwenkfelders, whose beliefs apparently coincide in many particulars with those of the Quakers, depending for spiritual guidance upon the inner light and having no set form of church government. After bearing much persecution in Silesia at the hands of the Emperor Charles VI., they came to Pennsylvania and settled in Montgomery County. King Frederick (the Great) of Prussia tried to induce them to return to Silesia after his taking possession of the province, saying, "In my dominions everybody can go to heaven after his own fashion provided he pays his taxes." They were happy in the enjoyment of this liberty, with perhaps fewer taxes, in Pennsylvania, and courteously declined the royal invitation. The Schwenkfelders, as a distinct religious sect, are said to be now very few in number.

Pennsylvania was now enjoying great prosperity as the pioneer German province. It was already a great distributing centre for the surrounding districts, and soon even many of its own settlers are moving farther inland and southward. From 1732 onward numerous settlements were made by them in Virginia and Maryland.

South Carolina next becomes an attraction for fresh arrivals. In 1732 a body of 170 Swiss settled there, and in 1735, 1737, 1750 and 1764 also, considerable numbers from various parts of Germany. From 1740 on, Germans are turning northward as far as Maine. In 1742 there settled there a band of some 300 Palatines and Würtembergers. Massachusetts and Nova Scotia also received a few in 1749.

The communities of men all over the world have been and are still being linked together in innumerable ways. Every storm on the bosom of the great ocean of humanity makes itself felt, even though only in decreasing wavelets, upon its distant shores. In the years 1729-32 that zealous Archbishop, Leopold, of Salzburg in the Tyrol, drove from his domains some 30,000 Lutherans. The greater number of these found a welcome by Frederic of Prussia. Several bands of them were assisted to England and thence to Georgia, where General Oglethorpe was a second Penn, of a more militant character. At intervals from 1734 to 1752 many came across, the largest band in 1736. This latter is noteworthy from the fact that in one of the ships, along with the Salzburgers, some

Moravian brethren, and also some soldiers to defend the new colony, there came John and Charles Wesley on their famous mission to evangelize the Indians. It is evident that Wesley was much influenced in his religious views by his conversation with the Moravians and their Bishop Nitschmann who crossed the ocean with him, and also another of their bishops, Spangenberg, with whom he lodged for a month. In the year 1741 there were about 1,200 Germans, including Salzburgers, Swiss and Palatines, in Georgia, and many more followed. This was one of the most prosperous of the German colonies in America.

Mention has just been made, in passing, of a religious body whose members were to play a most important rôle in the history of German immigration to America—the Moravians. This sect was an offshoot from the movement started by John Huss (himself a follower of Wycliffe) in Bohemia in the fifteenth century, and their origin thus antedates what we know as Protestantism. They founded a separate denomination in Mähren, or Moravia, that Austrian province east of Bohemia proper, whence their name. Expatriated by long-continued persecutions, a remnant of them passed over to Silesia and Saxony early in the eighteenth century, when, by a happy chance, they fell in with the young Count von Zinzendorf. This young nobleman was of a thoroughly religious bent, and sought a truer religion along the lines of the Pietists. Sympathizing with the persecuted Moravians, he gave them a place to live upon within his own estate. Here they gave the settlement the name of "Herrnhut" (*i.e.*, "Protection of the Lord"), from which they are frequently spoken of as Herrnhuters. The unorthodoxy of Zinzendorf soon brought him into official disfavor, and finally to exile. As we have already seen, some of the Moravians came to Georgia. But their settlement here was not completely successful, in spite of the high character and energy of their Bishop, Spangenberg, and before long they migrated to Pennsylvania. Here they worked harmoniously for a time with the Methodist, Whitefield, but soon quarrelled with him on the question of "limited atonement." At this juncture Count Zinzendorf and a party of friends arrived in America to throw in their lot with them. Zinzendorf's efforts to form a closer union of the various churches and sects in Pennsylvania led to some bitter theological controversies. From Benjamin Franklin's press issued many pamphlets, etc., in support of the Moravians. Of the achievements of the Moravians none stand out more nobly than their heroic mis-

sionary work among the Indians. Though exposed to danger and hardships, the missionary did not always find unwilling minds among the heathen red men. One Puritan clergyman zealously admonished a convert to keep the Sabbath strictly, whereat the willing Indian replied: "As to doing no work on Sunday, that is easy."

American history soon begins to move rapidly. Germans, with the other frontiersmen, had to bear their share of French and Indian attack when the struggle for the continent began; and it must be said that they bore it heroically. In 1755 a regiment of Germans was raised in Maryland and Pennsylvania, the "Royal American Regiment," battalions of which served against the French at Fort Duquesne, in Acadia, at Crown Point, Louisbourg, Niagara and the taking of Quebec.

When again the quarrel of the American colonies with the Mother Country came, the Germans are found to be thorough Americans, arranging themselves on the side of Washington. Along the northern frontier, some, however, remained faithful to the English Crown. Thus we find Germans among the United Empire Loyalists who settled in Canada, particularly along the St. Lawrence, in Dundas County, Ontario.

Such is, in brief, the history of the first century of German immigration to America. The original homes of these earliest comers were chiefly the Palatinate, Württemberg, Switzerland and the Rhine Valley. Dire need drove them from the scenes of their birth, and it was to escape from religious and political tyranny, and from the ruthless hand of war, that they struggled westward across the broad ocean in search of a land where freedom was, and where the fruits of cheerful toil might be to them and their children. In Penn's province they found extended to them the hand of welcome, and here have they, by a noble life of industry, become the truest citizens of the State. From time to time we have seen other bands turning their gaze northward or southward; in lesser numbers they have gone to New York, Louisiana, the Carolinas, Maine, Massachusetts, Georgia. In the course of years we see the original Pennsylvania settlers sending out their sons and daughters on further wanderings to Virginia, Maryland and other parts. Later again, if we could follow their fortunes further, they are among the pioneers to westward over the Alleghanies, into the valley of the Mississippi, and onward to the shores of the mightier Pacific. About the turn of the century a hundred years ago, Pennsylvania

sent still more of her families northward, by way of the Niagara peninsula, into Ontario, particularly to Waterloo County, where they bought a large tract—also to Markham Township to the east of us here, and again from Waterloo County in considerable numbers toward Grey and Bruce.

These first hundred years were the important formative period, to which I have almost exclusively devoted my attention to-day. The German settlers in America during that century stand in a vastly different relation to American nationality from that of the later comers, at least of those from, say, 1850 onward. After the War of Independence the stream of German immigration to America for a time almost dries up. I have not been able to find any estimate of the total number of Germans in America at the time when the States became an independent nation. In Pennsylvania itself there were about 110,000; this State included then the great majority of the whole number. These are the so-called "Pennsylvania Dutch," "Pennsylvanisch-Deutsch," as they called themselves, whereby Germans in America are frequently known by the misnomer of "Dutch." They are the good old stock from which branched off the great body of our Canadian fellow-citizens of German blood. The fact that so many of them were settled in a compact body in Pennsylvania, and their stay-at-home character, averse for many generations to participation in public life, preserved their language and original customs intact for a long time; but superior numbers and the greater mobility of modern American life, are now completing slowly, but surely, their transformation into English-speaking Americans. In other parts of the States, where smaller bodies have settled in the midst of English-speaking people, the German language has generally disappeared already, except where preserved here and there by the influx of later immigrants. The preservation or disappearance of the language is, therefore, a matter of locality. As to sentiment, I think we may safely take for granted that those who have been in America since, say, before the year 1850 have now become thorough-going American citizens.

I have only been able to get reliable official statistics of the immigration from the year 1821 onward. There is then a gap from 1776 to that year. Statistics are dry reading, but a few figures may serve better than many words to give you an idea of the accession to the German element of American national life since that time. From the year 1821 to 1850 there came to the

United States 593,841 Germans. By decades the arrivals during the past half-century have been as follows :

From 1851-60	-	-	-	-	951,667
" 1861-70	-	-	-	-	787,468
" 1871-80	-	-	-	-	718,182
" 1881-90	-	-	-	-	1,452,970
" 1891-1900	-	-	-	-	505,152

Totalling, from 1821 to 1900, the enormous number of 5,009,280. It will be noticed here, that high-water mark was reached in the decade 1881-90, one of hard times in Germany. Very significant is the falling off shown by the census just completed,—from 1,452,970 in the decade 1881-90 to 505,152 in the decade just closed.

As already pointed out, there are at the present day in the United States 6,240,000 persons of pure German blood, either born in Germany or of German parents. The five states with the highest German population are, in numerical order: New York, Illinois, Wisconsin, Ohio and Pennsylvania, ranging from 1,507,000 in New York to 713,000 in Pennsylvania. Four states have thus in modern times surpassed Pennsylvania, the original German centre.

Jeremiads are continually heard from those who fear the extinction of the original Anglo-Saxon type of American, and his transformation into a German. No doubt the great American giant needs a magnificent digestive apparatus to assimilate so many foreign elements. Yet, however much it flatters the national pride of any of the European nations to imagine its people becoming the dominant race in the United States—and at the present moment the Germans do seem to be most prone to point to such a pleasing evolution—I think that, even if there ever evolve what we might call from the point of view of race a typical American, he will still be in all essential particulars the Anglo-Saxon English-speaking species of the *genus homo*. Although within the period from 1821 to 1900 as many as 5,000,000 Germans have come in, yet in the same period Great Britain and Ireland have established nearly 7,000,000, while Canada (with Newfoundland), Norway and Sweden, Austria-Hungary and Italy have each sent, in round numbers, 1,000,000. Moreover, as I have already pointed out, the immigration from Germany has, within the past census period, fallen off by nearly two-thirds, while that from Austria-Hungary, Italy, Russia and Poland has almost doubled. The proportion of native-born Americans is also, in spite of such

enormous immigration, on the increase. In 1890 it was 85.2 per cent. of the total population; by the recent census it is 86.3 per cent.

The wish is father to many a thought. This, or only the hypothesis of lunacy, can explain to me some of the ideas which I have met with in print while seeking information upon this subject from time to time. Not long ago I found in what is generally considered the sanest historical review published in Germany, the *Preussische Jahrbücher*, a long article showing how that, in case France and Germany were to join forces against Great Britain, while the French fleet held the British in check, the seven or eight millions of Germans in the United States could spring to the aid of the fatherland, overrun Canada and found in British Columbia a German state, while of course Quebec and the East fell to the share of France. Typical of this same class of very imaginative gentlemen in Germany is Franz Löher, the author of a large volume which we may find in our library, entitled "Geschichte und Zustände der Deutschen in America." His book was written some fifty years ago, but appeared in a second edition in 1885. I refer to it only as the extreme representation of that class who seek to foster such fond hopes still. After five hundred pages of admonition to the Germans in America to strain every nerve not only to preserve language and customs untainted by their English surroundings, but to retain direct political connection with their fatherland, he concludes: "Old Germany occupies the centre of Europe and has long ruled that continent intellectually and politically . . . , will young Germany also occupy the centre of North America and some day in like manner rule this continent? . . . Good Fortune to you, New Germany!" At the opposite extreme we find such words as these, spoken by Friedrich Kapp, author of the well-known "Geschichte der Deutschen im Staate New York," and many other historical works: "Not in keeping separate from the American civilising elements lies the salvation of German immigration; not in fantastic dreams of a German State, a German Utopia, to be founded in America, can they flourish; not aside from the path, but in the midst of the life and strife of their American fellow-citizens is marked out for them a successful and fruitful activity. A German nation within the American they cannot be; but they can, in the battle for political and universally human interests, throw into the scale the solid substance of their national life, the treasures of their intellectual world; and their

influence will extend all the more deeply and make for itself all the larger field for action the less partisan it be in its application, the more firmly, at the same time, it holds fast to all that Germany has given to the world of great and good. . . . As soon as the German and the American spirit are wedded in this sense, the absorption of distinctive Germanism in Americanism has no longer anything painful in it, but it becomes rather a spiritual resurrection. For we must lend ourselves to no delusion on this point: he who emigrates gives up his fatherland and is lost to it. Just as little may a man have two fatherlands as two fathers. Be, then, either German or American; the German-American is only a transition stage, disappearing in the second generation. Let him who wishes to be German either remain at home or return again thither; to emigrate is for the individual man national death."

These are the manly words of self-respect and a lofty conception of human brotherhood. They are, moreover, none the less truly applicable to the other nationalities in process of fusion on the American continent—British, Scandinavian, Slavonic, Latin, Hungarian—than they are to the German. The highest development of mankind in this new world, where possibilities are greater than they have ever been before or are likely to be again in the history of our race, is only to be attained by a loyal joining of hands to give nobility and harmony to the life of the land we live in, the land that our children shall call their own. Along with this patriotism there will yet glow in the breast of each of us a reverent love for the land that gave our fathers birth.

"AS YOU LIKE IT" AND DRAMATIC UNITY.

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The purpose of the following discussion is to exemplify from "As You Like It" some general characteristics of Shakespeare's dramatic art. Of all Shakespeare's comedies, this one, perhaps, gives the most adequate and characteristic exhibition of his powers. A second advantage which "As You Like It" affords, is that we are able to compare Shakespeare's drama with its immediate source; for it is not likely (in such a matter absolute certainty is manifestly impossible) that the works of any other writer intervened between Lodge's novel, "Rosalynde," which we possess *in extenso* and Shakespeare's version of the same story. The additions, excisions, modifications of the original serve to indicate more clearly the workings of the dramatist's mind.

Before examining the relationship of "As You Like It" to its source, let us note briefly the general character of Shakespeare's comedy. The nature of comedy has differed at various epochs and in various countries. The term, speaking generally, is applied, somewhat vaguely, to dramas which do not involve the profounder, more serious and more intense emotions that belong to tragedy. In the literature of the world at large, comedy has perhaps allied itself most commonly to satire; the pleasure afforded involves a sense of superiority on the part of the spectator, to the characters or actions of the persons on the stage. These persons are either in themselves ridiculous or are rendered so by the situations in which they are involved. Comedy has at other times and places tended to present more or less realistic pictures of contemporary society, in which the elements of the satiric and the ridiculous are not necessarily dominating or even present, but in which situations are avoided that appeal to those emotions proper to tragedy. Now, the kind of comedy which Shakespeare usually writes stands apart from both these classes. His comedy differs essentially from the comedy of Terence, or Moliere, or Jonson, or Congreve, or Sheridan. In the first place, the chief scenes and characters of his plays do not present what is ridiculous, nor have they a satiric purpose; the spectator is not elevated to a pedestal from which he complacently looks down upon the persons and situations of the

stage. On the contrary, his attitude to the main theme is (as in tragedy) sympathetic. In the second place, Shakespeare does not make it his main purpose to depict in realistic fashion contemporary life. When he betakes himself to comedy, Shakespeare seems to seek for escape from the limitations and atmosphere of the every-day world. He chooses a theme which is ideal and delightful. He prefers a plot which is romantic, affording surprising, interesting, but not too profoundly moving situations: a love-story with a charming heroine; a beautiful background, with the loveliness of nature in it, if possible; an ancient forest, an enchanted island, a palace or a villa. To these he adds elements in detail that may stimulate delight: language mainly metrical and markedly poetic; dialogue which will give pleasure in itself, apart from its purpose in the development; songs, and perhaps masques and dances.

The materials furnished by Lodge's novel are such as to afford scope for the development of these various elements: and it may be said, in general, that (apart from the exceptions to be mentioned later) the persons and events of "*As You Like It*" have their counterparts in the original. "*Rosalynde*" is a typical novel of its time. It is a sentimental pastoral—a form of literature extremely common, both in prose and verse in western Europe of the sixteenth century. We all have some acquaintance with the artificiality and prettiness of the pastoral—its Arcadian shepherds and shepherdesses forever singing madrigals, piping love-plaints, holding poetical dialogues in the midst of a conventional landscape, a mosaic of traditional beauties: purling streams, umbrageous woods and verdant meads. The pastoral exercised a special charm upon many generations, and was a force both in literary and plastic art. Dresden shepherds and shepherdesses in porcelain, and those landscapes of the eighteenth century not representing any locality, but concocted of what were supposed to be the poetic elements of many scenes, with the inevitable conventional shepherds in the foreground, are among its later developments. Combined with this pastoral element, which predominates, we find in Lodge's "*Rosalynde*" some of the personages and adventures of chivalrous romance—a combination found commonly enough in Elizabethan poems and novels—for example in Sidney's "*Arcadia*." What, however, strikes the modern reader most in Lodge's book, and what was doubtless its chief attraction for contemporaries, is its elaborate, far-fetched style and its long sentimental set-speeches. In this

respect Lodge is a confessed imitator of Lyly in his "Eupheus." The taste of the present day would find "Rosalynde" a strange and wearisome book, but a little patience and power of escaping from the limitations of our own time enable the reader to perceive genuine literary merit and a real charm in this old-fashioned novel.

This attraction, no doubt, Shakespeare felt, but why, we may ask, did he select this particular novel for dramatization? Apart from the general scope which it afforded for the qualities already enumerated as belonging to his comedy, there can be no hesitation in replying that he was attracted by that situation which he has made the centre of his play,—the heroine in the disguise of a man encountering her lover who does not recognize her; at once deeply in love and yearning for his love in return, yet maintaining her mask, teasing him and coquetting with him. Shakespeare saw that here was an extraordinarily effective dramatic motive. Taking this situation (indicated, indeed, but only very partially developed by Lodge) as the centre, the poet arranged and harmonized the remainder of the play in relation to it.

In a well-constructed drama there is a scene in the third act which forms a crisis or turning-point: Cæsar's assassination, Othello's being convinced of Desdemona's guilt, Hamlet's neglect of the opportunity to slay his uncle in his chamber. To this culmination the whole preceding movement leads up; out of it again develop the forces that bring about the *dénouement*. In "As You Like It" this scene is the meeting of the lovers in the forest. The earlier portion of the play has its end in bringing them together there under peculiar conditions, and out of this meeting the *dénouement*—a happy marriage—develops.

What use does Shakespeare make of the novel in filling up this outline? In the novel he finds substantially the material for all the events, situations and persons necessary to produce the climax. It is rather in what he omits that he shows his independence, as also his sense of dramatic unity. In the novel, Orlando* is quite as important a person as Rosalind; but in the play Orlando is important only as the lover of Rosalind. Hence Shakespeare omits a long and sufficiently dramatic series of adventures which spring from the relations of Orlando with his elder brother. In short, the dramatist decisively subordinates the part of the hero to that of

*To avoid confusion the persons of the novel are referred to by the names applied to their counterparts in the play.

the heroine. As far as plot goes, this is the most extensive and important omission in the construction of the play; and it is evidently made in the interest of dramatic unity. All the more noticeable is it that Shakespeare is alone responsible for certain substantial additions of persons and scenes to Lodge's story which are in no sense needful for the furtherance of the plot. For example, he adds three characters, Jaques, Touchstone and Audrey, who have no prototypes in the original; the omission of all that these persons say and do, would leave the action complete and equally well motivated. Shakespeare, then, by such additions, violates what is usually regarded as the law of unity of structure.

We are thus brought to a closer consideration of our author's observance of unity in "As You Like It," and, indeed, in his comedies in general, for against most of them similar objections may be taken. We shall proceed, then, to examine how "As You Like It" falls short of the requirements of the narrow standard of plot unity. First of all, there are a number of scenes which seem to have a common purpose but which might be omitted without subtracting any event or cause effective for the development of the main story: Act II., sc. 1 (The duke and his companions in the forest); Act II., sc. 5 (The duke's followers in the forest; "Under the greenwood tree"); Act IV., sc. 2 (The hunters in the forest; "What shall he have that killed the deer"); Act V., sc. 3 (Touchstone and pages in the forest; "It was a lover and his lass"). The common function of these scenes is to present the background or permanent conditions. Recall the first scenes of "Julius Cæsar," "Macbeth," and "Romeo and Juliet"; each serves to depict the permanent conditions in the midst of which the story enacts itself: in "Julius Cæsar," the general political status at Rome, and the character and tendencies of the common people; in "Macbeth," the power of evil, of the not ourselves which makes for unrighteousness; in "Romeo and Juliet," the feuds in Verona. A similar character belongs to the opening scene of Act II. of the play before us; it is the prelude to the action which takes place in the forest. To be sure, in the case of the plays above-mentioned, this background is much more of an actual cause of plot-development. The feuds at Verona, the fickleness of the people of Rome, are manifest factors in the *dénouement* of both plays; whereas the background in "As You Like It" is not a cause of development but a *continuous factor in the effectiveness and beauty of the situations*.

This effectiveness may be illustrated by a parallel case in real

life. He who recalls the delight of friendly intercourse on a camping expedition or at a picnic, the vivacious and interesting converse which it has afforded, will admit that an element in that delight was derived from the background of natural beauty, and the freedom from the sense of the restraint which ordinary life imposes. Under other conditions, the same sort of natural intercourse would have been impossible, or would, amidst more prosaic surroundings, have lost no small proportion of its charm.

The scenes of the play which have just been enumerated, have the function of developing the background in its two aspects, natural and moral: (1) the imagination is stimulated to feel the charm of nature; (2) the general character of the life of these temporary denizens of the forest is depicted. It is a reflective leisurely life, varied by active out-door pursuits. It is free from the dull burden of ordinary anxieties. Its wholesomeness, its joyousness, its freedom from care and from the unrealities of artificial society are the theme of the exiled duke's introductory speech in the first of these scenes. The wholesome, tonic effect of these conditions upon the moral, is akin to its bracing effect upon the physical nature. Observe further that these are also the theme of the song ("Under the Greenwood Tree," etc.) which forms the centre of the second of these scenes, as well as the subject of the later song beginning, "Blow, blow, thou winter wind." This infusing and emphasizing of the natural beauty of the forest, and the charm of open-air unconventional life, while they contribute nothing to the plot, are certainly powerful factors in the general emotional resultant of the whole play. Further, the fact must not be overlooked that there is an evident, though not very easily defined, fitness between this background, both moral and natural, and the central events of the play. This life in the forest furnishes, as we feel, an appropriate setting to the unconventional situation of the heroine,—her bold use of her disguise, her wit, and her animal spirits. It is in such considerations as these that we must find a justification for the insertion of these parts of the play and not in that narrower of unity which requires that every detail must contribute to the development of the story.

Between the opening and climax of the story which forms the framework of "As You Like It," there is ample material for development. The movings of the mutual passion between hero and heroine, and the bringing of them together under peculiar conditions in the forest give room for those successive stages and

for that play of cause and effect needful for an interesting plot. But for the downward movement of the plot, from the climax to the *dénouement*, there is a lack of steps in development and of material. There really exists no obstacle between the meeting of the lovers and their happy union except the need that Rosalind may feel to ascertain her lover's sincerity and the difficulty of escaping from the embarrassment of her disguise. What does Shakespeare do in this poverty of matter for dramatic scenes? He resorts to a device of which he makes use upon more than one occasion, *viz.*, the introduction of a series of *variations on the main theme*.

The most striking example of this device which his plays afford is the central scene of "King Lear," where there are three variations on the theme of mental aberration: the raving of Lear, the assumed madness of Edgar, the light-headed babblings of the fool. The two variations of the main theme serve to relieve a tension which had otherwise been excessive and wearying; and yet, no less certainly, they intensify and enhance the whole effect, in some such fashion as a musical composition gains in richness and power when instead of being played upon a single instrument, it is rendered by a complete orchestra. Again, in the structure of "King Lear" as a whole, Shakespeare makes use of the same device; the unnatural relation between father and children in the case of the royal family is paralleled by a similar state of things in the house of the Duke of Gloucester. This is the more notable because the addition of the Gloucester episode is almost certainly due to Shakespeare himself and not to some antecedent fashioner of the story.

Now, in "As You Like It," the central scenes have two main characteristics: they are love scenes, and they are full of wit. Rosalind is interesting because she is in love, and because she is witty and vivacious. On each of these characteristics, love and wit, the dramatist plays a series of variations; and these variations account for the remaining scenes and characters which are not included in the requirement of the mere plot. As to the variations on the theme of love; we have (1st) the wholesome, romantic passion between the two chief characters; (2nd) the sentimental, conventional, overwrought love of Silvius to Phœbe; and (3rd) the farcical love of Touchstone and Audrey. The second of these love entanglements Shakespeare found in his original, but he treats it somewhat differently from Lodge. He reduces it in compass so as to subordinate it to the main love episode, and he takes it less

seriously so as to contrast it more strongly with the main love-story. Lodge had no perception of the absurdities of this pair; Shakespeare regards them with a humorous eye. The third variation, the love-story of Touchstone and Audrey, is wholly Shakespeare's invention; and recalls the satyric after-piece that followed a tragic trilogy in Greece. The symphony produced by various aspects of the passion comes out with admirable dramatic force in Act V., sc. 2, beginning, "Good Shepherd, tell this youth what 'tis to love," with (although Touchstone is not there) its threefold chorus.

There is a fourth pair of lovers in "As You Like It," Oliver and Celia, of whose courtship we have made no mention. In Lodge this love episode is presented in similar detail to the others; but Shakespeare curtails it, and merely lets us know of its existence; he does not present it before our eyes. The reason is, one may conjecture, that it too closely resembles the main love episode; it cannot serve for contrast or variety and, indeed, Shakespeare makes use of it solely as a factor in the plot. It is the immediate cause of Rosalind's bringing her lover's probation and her own *incognito* to an end. Accordingly the dramatist gives it no picturesque embodiment or independent interest for the reader.

We now come to the variations on the second characteristic of the central scenes and of Rosalind herself, *viz.*, wit. These are dependent upon two personages, Jaques and Touchstone, for whom there is no hint in the original and who, as far as plot development goes, are wholly useless. In Rosalind we have fun in its most innocent and winning aspect, fun that comes from a good heart, happy temper and overflowing vivacity. She is clever, witty, and a pretended satirist of her own sex. In Jaques we have the bitter wit of the *blasé* man of pleasure. He has had experience of the seamy side of life, and by his excesses has destroyed its freshness and charm. His wit and satire are brilliant, worldly wise and cynical. Finally, we have the broader fun afforded by Touchstone, —not the farcical absurdities of some of Shakespeare's clowns, Lancelot, for example, but wit of a more refined and polished character in keeping with the whole tone of the play. The amusement in this case arises from Touchstone's his self-complacency, and his caricatures of polite circles. His satire is chiefly directed at the conventionalities of higher society, and serves to heighten by contrast the charm of the simpler conditions in the forest of Arden.

We have thus arranged all the scenes or main divisions of scenes

under one of four categories: (1) As belonging to the plot; (2) as presenting the background; (3) as presenting variations on the theme of love; (4) as presenting variations on the theme of wit.

It may be added that the entanglement between Rosalind and Phœbe may either be regarded as a sub-plot, contributing to the development of the *dénouement* through the awkward position in which it puts Rosalind, or as another variation on the theme of love. It should be stated that an additional purpose of several of these scenes which are not absolutely necessary for plot development, is to indicate time intervals between the scene immediately preceding and that immediately following. For, it should be remembered, owing to the lack of a curtain and shifting scenery, there was no other means of indicating on the stage an interval of time between two successive scenes.

From our examination of "As You Like It," it is evident that Shakespeare did not abide by the stringent requirements of plot unity. The result of an utter neglect of unity in a drama would, of course, be that, instead of *one* work of art, we should have several; the outcome would bear to a true drama the relation of a volume of short stories to a novel proper. In order that a work of art may be a unity, every part should not merely in itself afford pleasure, but should contribute a factor towards a general resultant,—a final effect which is the product of all the parts. The larger proportion, in the case of each scene, this factor bears to the whole effect of that scene, the greater will be the unity. Everyone who has seen, let us say, "Romeo and Juliet," well presented on the stage, well knows that at the close there is a general sense of the beauty, the pathos, the worth of human life, which is the resultant of the varied impressions produced by the successive scenes, and is superior in power and æsthetic effectiveness to that produced by any one of them. It is notable, also, that "Hamlet," which sins against this narrow intellectual test of unity more perhaps than any other of Shakespeare's greater works, is not only the most successful, both on the stage and in the study, but also, far from leaving an impression of a loosely strung series of scenes, produces a great complex, cumulative effect as a whole. No doubt, there is something of high artistic consequence attained by logical clearness and simplicity of plot structure,—something which is found perhaps more often in French literature than elsewhere. The writer who neglects the guidance of this obvious principle is likely to involve himself and his reader in difficulties. Yet something also is lost.

There is often a sense of thinness and barrenness of effect in such logically constructed works of art; and their very simplicity, remote as it is from the actual complexity and entanglement of life, gives an air of unreality. It may be difficult to defend to the mere understanding, the landscapes which the great masters of Italian painting so often elaborate as backgrounds for the scenes of Christian story; yet these landscapes certainly do not detract from, but enhance, the whole effect. So there is much in Shakespeare's dramas whose efficacy can scarcely be demonstrated to the merely intellectual critic, but which is powerfully felt by the sensitive artistic spirit. And not logical, but emotional satisfaction is the chief end of art. There is a unity of sentiment and feeling as well as of plot. In his comedies particularly, Shakespeare seems to be aiming at producing a full and rich sense of æsthetic satisfaction by a gathering together of varied but congruous sources of delight. Nor are these heaped up at random; they enhance, set off, assist one another. There is a sense of rich chords, of harmonies and symphonies; the effect is not that of a simple melody but of a full orchestral combination of varied, yet mutually sustaining parts.

A rough analysis of the contents of "As You Like It" is subjoined. The parts printed in ordinary type belong to the plot proper; those in italics, to the background; those underlined present love-variations; those in heavy-faced type, wit-variations; the asterisk indicates that the part to which it is affixed is also useful to mark an interval of time.

ACT I.—

- Scene 1. Orlando's position; the Dukes and their daughters; preparation for wrestling.
2. Rosalind's position; **Rosalind, Celia and Touchstone**; the wrestling; Duke Frederic and Oliver.
3. Rosalind in love; banishment; preparation for the forest.

ACT II.—

- Scene 1. *Duke Senior in forest*; **preparation for Jaques**.
2. Discovery of Celia's departure; preparation for Oliver's banishment.
3. Arrival of Rosalind in forest; Silvius and Corin.
5. *Companions of the Duke in the forest: song of "Under the Greenwood Tree."*

6. Arrival of Orlando in the forest.
7. *Duke and Jaques in forest (Blow, blow, thou winter wind)*; * Orlando received by Duke.

ACT III.—

- Scene 1. Oliver banished.
2. Orlando hanging verses; **Touchstone and Corin**; Rosalind and Celia; **Orlando and Jaques**; * Rosalind and Orlando.
 3. Touchstone and Audrey (Jaques in background). *
 4. Rosalind and Celia on Orlando's unpunctuality; Corin on Silvius.
 5. Silvius and Phœbe; Rosalind and Phœbe; Silvius and Phœbe.

ACT IV.—

- Scene 1. **Rosalind and Jaques**; Rosalind and Orlando (mock marriage).
2. *Hunters* ("What shall he have that killed the deer?"). *
 3. Silvius brings Phœbe's letter to Rosalind; Oliver with tidings of Orlando's wound.

ACT V.—

- Scene 1. **Touchstone, Audrey and William**. *
2. Oliver's wedding preparation; Rosalind promises all shall be married (chorus).
 3. *Pages and Touchstone* ("It was a lover and his lass").
 4. The gathering of the couples; **Touchstone on duelling**; * the marriage; conclusion.

ANCIENT GREEK PAINTING.

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(Abstract.)

The paper fell into two main divisions, the first dealing with the ornamentation of Greek vases, the second with mural decoration and portrait painting, each part being illustrated by twenty-five or thirty lantern projections.

After defining Greek idealism, the lecturer proceeded to discuss briefly the materials and processes of ancient Greek painting, calling attention to the probable fact that oil painting, as we understand the term, was unknown in ancient times.

It was interesting to note, the lecturer said, that there was apparently an artistic evolution in the decorative designs on Greek vases. In the oldest types the pattern represented something inanimate, mere zigzag lines, for instance. Later we find representations of plants and of animals low in the scale of development. Still later we have representations of more highly organized animals, and finally man is the principal figure depicted.

In the second division of his paper Mr. Carruthers dealt with the different periods to which the wall-paintings of ancient Rome and Pompeii are to be assigned, and with the respective characteristics of such periods. He also touched on portraits recently discovered in the Fayyum (a district of upper Egypt), and in different places in Greece. At the conclusion of the lecture two fine pictures were thrown on the screen, one of the late Rev. Dr. McCaul, formerly President of University College, as a typical Greek scholar of the last century; the other of Principal Hutton, as a typical Greek scholar of the present day.

SOME CONSIDERATIONS ON ROMANCE IN NINETEENTH-CENTURY ENGLISH LITERATURE.

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Like other literary phenomena, romance appears in good, bad and indifferent forms. Professor Matthews, writing in *The Bookman* recently, drew a distinction between romance and romanticism amounting simply to the ancient distinction between original power and feeble or insincere imitation, which traditionally develops the vicious tendencies of a master. Most men may be weak or bad or foolish, and so probably most romances, though in less proportion, are not worth reading. But we have to do with the good alone.

Romance itself refuses to consider anything but the beautiful and good. It therefore turns from the commonplace. And in connection with this disregard of sordid or commonplace things appear that excess of imagination over sober judgment and attention to fact which Foster, in his essay on "The Epithet Romantic," takes to be the most distinguishing feature of romance. There is always a vein of gentle extravagance, but with its frequent exaggeration into grotesqueness, or with its perversion into insincerity, we have nothing to do.

Not only the devotion to the beautiful, but its fundamental temper of wonder drives romance away from the commonplace, from the worldly, from fact, to the strange and remote and visionary. And what makes anything strange? It is that no account is made of the causes of it. Romance seizes upon the great moments of life, neglecting the circumstances which make them possible. As Mr. Watts-Dunton has pointed out, it is the temper of wonder, of artless joy in the contemplation of great things, untroubled by concern for causes, that makes romance. Romance is never too serious a form of idealism; it admits neither the reformer or instructor, nor the humorist as such. Romance requires the mood of careless security, of artless unconcern, of simple delight. It admires results without consideration of causes. So everything approached in a direct, impulsive way, by a leap that vaults over the little things, looks strange, isolated, enchanted,

as mountain-peaks seen far off, whose bases obscuring clouds enwrap or foot-hills conceal, while the horizontal sun lights the upper snow. The peculiar selectiveness of romance springs from wonder. Romance will not be bound by law or tradition, as Pater makes clear; warm and spontaneous, it abhors the cool collectedness of classicism. It will be free and roving, preferring the unusual wood-paths to the highways either in subject or style.

But there is one supreme quality of romance yet to mention, one that Mr. Stoddard brings out so well in a chapter of his little book on the "Evolution of the English Novel." Bacon rejoices that learning removes idle and ignorant wonder from men's minds. He might have added that learning opens up new fields of wonder, and therefore new and larger prospects of romance. Knowledge carries men at any time to a certain point. But romance may start from the apex of knowledge, as Leigh Hunt says of poetry, and fly up into the unknown region where faith and fancy expand themselves unhampered by laws of reason. The findings of romance in this region are not absurd, nor merely idiosyncratic, nor do they properly smell of the charnel-house, like some neurotic French literature; the discoveries of romance are at least semi-credible, and always desirable. Romance carries about it an indefinable air of half belief, as moving about in worlds not fully realized. It has not the air of downright faith, which belongs rather to other kinds of idealism. Romance wanders tentatively, vaguely seeking some ideal of beauty, and admiring things along its devious path. This wandering quest of the ideal, which every one has distinguished as the first principle of romance, is inextricably bound up with the temper of wonder. Sometimes the quest is for a symbol, sometimes for a new law which shall permit romance to alight at last on a higher peak of knowledge than before known, there to transform itself into a new classicism, or merely to take rest before it be gone once more on its adventure brave and new. As knowledge occupies higher positions, romance erects, as Mr. Stoddard puts it, on each successive height, an altar to the unknown God who lives beyond.

As knowledge advances, however, former romance very often becomes absurdity, or else mere matter of fact. At every new conquest made by reason of territory previously held by fancy, ideals of religion, philosophy or romance may be either trampled under foot or crystallized into the commonplace. What was before the semi-credible may become either grotesque, incredible, or else

plain matter of knowledge. The haze of half-belief or careless trust, so essential to the child-like temper of wonder and joy, is half dispelled. Worn-out ideals or figures may still retain a symbolic interest. But the intrinsic romance of such ideas is over. So, too, with old fancies becoming facts. New wonder, new fancy, new prophecy succeed the old. The spirit of idealism in its many forms never perishes but undergoes change.

To sum up—I have indicated as the most apparent qualities of romance: (1) Its selective attention, its rejection of the ugly, the commonplace, or the worldly; (2) the ascendancy of imagination over judgment, resulting in a certain extravagance, and tending to weaken into insincerity; (3) the temper of wonder and joy which drives it away from established order, to steer between wild grotesqueness and matter-of-fact, between the untrue and the too true; (4) the earnest grace, and yet careless unconcern of a child, which rises neither to serious purpose, nor to humor, and tends, therefore, to weaken into a tedious prattle or monotonous chirp; (5) its quest of the ideal.

One may add, perhaps, that there is often a sadness in great romance, because the ideal pursued cannot be reached. Keats saw the beauty of Greece past and gone. Like a new planet it swam into his ken, but it was far away. Coleridge thinks of an ethereal world inwoven with the natural, where essences unthought of may exist; and while Nature, in the "Ancient Mariner," is shot with glimmers of that stranger light, there is a pathos in the uncomprehended plight of the strange old man. What is the matter with him? What has he caught from that contact with the ethereal world? Perhaps, in one respect, he is like the Lazarus whom Karshish saw. Wordsworth's "presence that might not be put by" is sought with longing regret through life; "the glory and the freshness of a dream" may not be regained when once the dawn rose has faded into common day. So there is a sadness in the joy of romance. Weak writers make it maudlin. It may become a whine. What a yammering goes up from the good ship, "Romantic Love," as she sails with crowded decks to the islands of the blest. The so-called romance of science has its pathos, for as great pains are spent and as many lives wrecked in the search for the meaning of existence as formerly for the philosopher's stone.

Such being the general characteristics of romance, let us proceed to the examination of the several forms that have been assumed in English literature of the nineteenth century.

Imagination turned in several directions away from the common-places of eighteenth century literature. In the "Tales of Terror," Horace Walpole, Mrs. Radcliffe, "Monk" Lewis, and others plunged into the region of the supernatural. Scott himself, though with sceptical reserve, followed them in this track, especially in "The Monastery" and "The Lay of the Last Minstrel." Wordsworth explored the mysterious life of nature. Another refuge from the conventions of an artificial life Scott found in history. One could shut his eyes more easily in history to ugliness, meanness and brutality, than in a view of the present environment. But Scott was no thorough-going romanticist, even when the mood was on. Like most great writers he has his sentimental side, his humorous side, his romantic side, etc.; but even when the romantic fit has its turn, it does not quite get possession of him. Byron has a real, but not a romantic love of Nature. It is very self-possessed, not artless or child-like. Byron could never do anything like Keat's "Ode to Autumn." He was not of the initiated. What did Byron idealize then? Nothing, probably, but himself. His is the quasi-romance of mere lawlessness, of the long-haired egotist who unnecessarily feels himself set apart from common men. There is a suggestion of the melancholy Jacques about Byron, though he is "robustious" and massive, with a something dangerous in him, where Jacques is weak as a rush. Byron's very romance of himself, however ludicrous by its insincerity in the serious exhibition of "Childe Harold," becomes a delightful burlesque of romance in "Don Juan." His blustering strength and capital humor make him perhaps the greatest of English satirists. And he has worked one vein of genuine romance in his use of strange lands. The spell of the Levant, of perilous seas in lands forlorn, rests upon "The Corsair" and "The Gaiour."

Should Shelley be called a romanticist? His idealism seems too intellectual. He is so serious a reformer, in his larger work at least, that he can never exhibit the careless security and artless wonder of genuine romance. Even Wordsworth often turns apostate in his zeal to instruct. Perhaps the most consistent children of romance at the beginning of the century were Coleridge and Keats. Both have the happy, graceful, careless nature, which yet seeks with "earnest pains," and is always open to fresh impressions. They go for their romance not simply to Nature, or history, or the supernatural, but like Spenser, Sidney and Shakespeare, they have access at all times to a world of beauty imminent in the world of

sense. The elusive vision came to both and drew them after, and they, following, caught ever at the evanescent robes of the retreating spirit, and some of their prize they garnered for their readers, but the most they could not give us.

They do not always wear "the optimistic grin." In their work there is a breath ever and anon blowing that stirs uneasy motion as you read. Flashes that seem to have come from the diadem of loveliness may not always give an unruffled pleasure. Beauty seems at times to have even a maleficent power, *La Belle Dame sans Merci*, and the *Nightmare Life-in-Death* give relief to the more benign creations of romantic fancy. And with these we may compare William Morris' "*Hill of Venus*."

Of the two poets, Keats is probably the more correct romantic. There is some rusty machinery clanking in "*The Ancient Mariner*" and "*Christabel*." But Keats is pure gold. The style and metres of both have an ease and grace fitted exactly to the subject matter. Like all who come under the spell of the past, they affected not only its subjects but its forms, reviving in particular, along with Scott, the ballad with all its romantic associations. In diction, as in thought, it is easy for the romanticist to run into excessive extravagance, but Keats and Coleridge did not fall into the Spenserian heresy of ultra-archaism.

It was the scientific, historical, and antiquarian research towards the end of the eighteenth century, and the political agitation on the continent, that advanced knowledge and gave a new spring-board to the poetical imagination. And so romance revived in the four or five kinds above-mentioned, supernatural, historical, natural and that general sort exhibited by Coleridge and Keats, which we may call the æsthetic. To these we may add the burlesque romance, as, "*Don Juan*." For this, too, was no new form, as Scott points out in his "*Essay on Romance*."

Adventurous romance, or the romance of action, is also illustrated in two or three of Scott's novels. But it did not assume important proportions till very recently in the works of Stevenson. Still, we must not altogether forget our old friends Lever and Marryat, though their romance is almost smothered in humor and boisterous spirits. Such books as Scott's "*Ivanhoe*" or Coleridge's "*Ancient Mariner*" exhibit, of course, something more than pure adventure.

The romance of love is a hardy perennial, and yet, outside of Keats, found no adequate cultivators at the beginning of the cen-

tury. Later on, it appeared in Browning, in Tennyson's "Enoch Arden," here and there sporadically; but its most exquisite flower was to appear in the poems of Rossetti and Mr. Swinburne. Though writing in prose, which is less favorable for the fairy flights, Blackmore did well in "Lorna Doone," published 1869. This has sometimes been spoken of as the first note of the new romantic revival, but, as usual, poetry had led the way, in the poems of Morris and Mr. Swinburne, while Rossetti's verses, though not published till 1870, had long been circulated in manuscript. Yet, after all, what prose romance of love is finer than that of honest Dobbin or of Col. Newcome? And what of brave Jane Eyre and her Rochester?

But to return to the beginning of the century, the new impulse to a fresher work in literature was partly due to Percy's "Reliques." This book helped towards a revived interest in Elizabethan writers. Wordsworth knew his Spenser and his Shakespeare, and we may suppose that he derived inspiration from them as well as from the vernal wood. Coleridge's enthusiasm for Shakespeare, Lamb's for the other Elizabethan dramatists, Keats' for Spenser and Browne, hardly need mention. And as "the lofty and insolent vein" of that older literature was strongly tinged with romance the nascent tendency of the Wordsworthian era was thus strengthened and directed.

There was one great difference between the romance of the sixteenth and nineteenth centuries. The growth of democratic and humanitarian ideas in the eighteenth century made it no longer possible for writers to ignore the worth of common people. In fact poetry and fiction aimed to be read by the masses, and not, like the "Fairie Queene" or "Venus and Adonis," by a cultured coterie. The worth of the humblest man as a man could no longer be easily neglected.

So Burns and Scott pursued the ideal of beauty into the homes of the peasants or the haunts of gipsies, smugglers, beggars and bandits. Scott said he had heard the most beautiful words from the mouths of poor cottagers, uttering the sublimest thoughts to be found anywhere out of the pages of the Bible.

But the true apostle to our time of this new romance of common life was Wordsworth. Scott's gipsies and beggars had still some of the old adventurous or historical romance to help them out. But "Peter Bell" struck the first hour of peculiarly nineteenth century romance. Of old, the commonplace person had been

tabooed by the fine writers. But just as the microscope reveals a world within a world, so the penetrating ray of Christian philanthropy and liberalism revealed within any man you please all the elements that make up a social world. What the world's rough thumb could not detect, this new vision perceived. In a person so sordid to the naked eye as Peter, Wordsworth found both the common-place and the romantic, and all that had to be done for romance was the elimination of the other element. Wordsworth found how close romance is to every one of us.

Not only his pantheistic romance of nature, but the rapid progress of science in the ensuing years, tended to enhance the value of common life, and of common things. The phenomena of nature became invested with a new significance by the microscope and by the theory of evolution. So that Tennyson can scientifically sum the case, as he does in the poem on the flower in the crannied wall. Every common thing is like the world itself; it contains the known and the unknown, fact and romance. So the temper of wonder and joy finds stimulus everywhere. There is a romance even of science for the man who can go to the new discovered things and, like a bee in a flower, extract the honey.

This new phrase of romance has advanced with every stride of science, of liberalism, of philanthropy. The old phases still survive, but have usually been strongly influenced by the new idea, or even included under it. Even the Pre-Raphaelites do not always, or all of them, like Mr. Morris, shun the actual, the common-place, the present. Swinburne's "Forsaken Garden" is a plain example, in fact, of the romance inherent in common things to one who views them in the romantic spirit. It is no longer quite necessary to go for romance to Wordsworth's "high objects and enduring things"; to history, or to strange remote regions; to the supernatural; to the distant scene of Rossetti's "Blessed Damozel," or to Keat's fairy lands forlorn. Everything now contains something "for to admire and for to see." Not all care now to go to the vernal wood for romance. Kipling thanks God, in the "Seven Seas," that he was not born on any waste isle or promontory, but in populous Bombay. And in an essay on Kipling, Mr. Dowden points out the essentially romantic character of his poetry, distinguishing his romance as masculine, that of Keats and Coleridge, Rossetti, Morris and Yeats as feminine. Perhaps Kipling's masculinity consists in the less childlike, more self-possessed character of his wonder. But he shows the comparative neglect of

the commonplace or practical, whether it be the common objects or the practical element in them. Whether it be feminine or masculine, romance is certainly visionary, ever "unpractical."

One may divide the nineteenth century broadly into three periods, 1780-1830, 1830-1880, 1880-1903. In the first, Burns, Scott, and especially Wordsworth, showed the new romance; while at the same time they and others revived the older forms.

The second period has usually been put down as one of pure realism, domesticity and conventionality, reaction from romance. There are some flashes of the new romance in Thackeray's realism, in Tennyson's poems of the hearth, coming to bright flame in "Jane Eyre"; and of the old romance some touches in Tennyson, Arnold and Lytton, a strong flavor in Browning, Kingsley and Mr. Shorthouse, and some grotesque effects in Dickens. But compare Arnold with Wordsworth. It was a time of science.

The last period has seen a great renaissance. Not only has the new romance ripened into full fruit, but the older forms are pursued again with fervor. No one kind will satisfy imagination. And in things common, fact so obtrudes, after all, that it is hard for some to see the romance. Kipling has even to argue that there *is* a romance of steam. There is a kind of war between the nineteenth century romance reinforced by Kipling and the old forms revived again by the Pre-Raphaelites. The lover of dreamy remoteness will not always admit the romance in common life and common things. But it is worth noticing that the conflict between the new and the old is attended by advance of both.

The revival of "old romance" begun by Rossetti, and carried on by Morris and Swinburne in the late sixties, became conspicuous only after 1870. And it was not until Stevenson and writers like Mr. Haggard joined the poets, that the old romance of remote adventure, of nature, of the past, got firm hold of the people again. In 1868 Pre-Raphaelitism was as yet revolt, when Morris described himself as a "Dreamer of dreams born out of my due time,"—"who strive to build a shadowy isle of bliss midmost the beating of the steely sea." But in the eighties "old romance" was triumphant. The out-of-doors enthusiasm of late years has helped along the romance of nature and adventure. Our own Thompson-Seton goes to the animal world. Bullen shows us what mystery is in the sea. The "*old* romance" of both is tinged with the new. And so, *vice versa*, the new romance of Kipling, as in the "Jungle Books," "Kim," etc.; of Philpotts, in his Devon stories; of our own

Drummond, in his "Habitant," is materially influenced by the old romance of nature or the past, of remoteness or adventure. Weyman and Hewlett follow Haggard like Morris, "telling a tale not too importunate," and making "fresh flowers spring up from hoarded seed."

Very recently the supernatural, which interested Coleridge and Rossetti, has found new expression in W. B. Yeats, and in Stephen Phillips' "Christ in Hades." And the posthumous book of F. H. Myers may have a great literary import.

Romance is in full tide, in life, in politics and in literature. Religion, spiritualism, neo-Celticism, romance, have succeeded to the materialism of thirty years ago, and that, too, though life is "strenuous" as never before. Once it was Arnold, Huxley and Gladstone; now it is Kipling and Chamberlain. Who shall be the consummate master of the new romantic epoch? Perhaps we have already the Burns, the Blake, or the Bowles; but the Wordsworth seems not yet to have arrived.

PAINTING IN RELATION TO LITERATURE IN FRANCE.

J. SQUAIR, B.A., TORONTO.

The relations between the various forms of art at any period of a nation's history are very close, for they are all the outcome of the same conditions. The ideals of beauty which prevail at any given moment will influence all those who attempt to produce works of art. The form of a painting or a poem is not accidental. It is determined by a highly complex set of factors, into which enter the political, social, religious and scientific ideas of a period of national history. Hence the striking resemblance often to be observed between the painting and literature of any given time.

If we look at mediæval paintings we see the same characteristics as we see in mediæval literature. The four shown to-day are from the church of St. Savin and belong probably to the period between 1050 and 1150 of our era. They represent scenes from the Old Testament and are strikingly like passages that might be quoted from such works as "*Le Mystère du vieil Testament*." The same crudeness, *naïveté* and lack of proportion are present in both the paintings and the "Mystery." The Renaissance produced very similar results in both realms of art. What was crude and fantastic in mediæval art was replaced by noble and dignified forms. And so in the classical period, the figure paintings, landscapes and battle scenes of Poussin, Claude le Lorrain and Le Brun are the exact counterparts of the dignified plays of Corneille and Racine. The eighteenth century might be divided into three parts: the early part, with its delicate conceptions of beauty, the masterpiece of which is Watteau's "*Embarquement pour Cythère*"; the middle part, dominated by the sentimentality initiated by Jean-Jacques Rousseau, a good example of whose painting is the "*Accordée de Village*" by Greuze, and the later years of the century, dominated by the political ideals of the Revolutionary period, whose greatest paintings are the classical works of David. In the nineteenth century there are two great artistic movements, the Romantic and the Realistic. The first Romantic painting is generally said to be the "*Radeau de la Méduse*," by Géricault, in the year 1819, almost the exact date of the "*Méditations*" of Lamartine. The greatest of the Romantic painters is

Eugène Delacroix, the Hugo of painting as he is sometimes called. In his great paintings "Dante and Virgil," "The Massacre of Chios," and the like, we see the same qualities as we see in the plays of Hugo and Dumas the elder. The moderate school of writers, such as Casimir Delavigne and Ponsard, has its counterpart in the group of painters of which Paul Delaroche is the chief. The poets of nature and of country life have their brethren amongst the painters in such as Corot, Troyon and Millet. The new scholarship, classical or prehistoric, has also its representatives in painting as we see in the works of Couture, Chasseriau, Cormon or Gérôme. The Realism of Flaubert, Maupassant and Zola is paralleled by the Realism of Courbet, Bastien-Lepage and Béraud. Similar parallels exist also between the Impressionism of painting and literature.

UEBER MODERNE DEUTSCHE LYRIK.

VON HEINRICH REMBE, CONESTOGO, ONT.

Als i. J. 1870-71 Preussen und die mit ihm verbündeten Staaten den alten Erbfeind Frankreich nach schwerem Ringen besiegt hatten und ein einiges Deutschland aus diesem Kampf hervorgegangen war, da erhoffte man vielfach auch eine neue Blüthezeit deutscher Litteratur. Diese Hoffnung aber ging nicht in Erfüllung. Wohl hoben sich durch die französischen Milliarden für eine Zeit lang Handel und Wandel, aber sie brachten mehr Leid als Freude, mehr Fluch als Segen. Der beste Theil der Volkskraft schien sich auf den französischen Schlachtfeldern verblutet zu haben. Die erhoffte Nationalliteratur kam nicht nur nicht, sondern das Starke und Gute, was davon aus früheren Jahren noch da war, wurde gar bald von fremdländischem Wesen überwuchert. Von Norden her drang der nüchterngraue Realismus der Norweger ein und vom Westen her kam siegreich der kaum geschlagene Feind mit seinen schlüpfrigen Dramen und seinem schmutzig nackten Naturalismus. Wer deshalb die deutsche Litteratur der letzten 25 Jahre betrachtet, wird wenig Freude daran haben und an wirklicher nationaler Litteratur wenig finden. Erst in neuerer Zeit haben sich die deutschen Schriftsteller wieder auf Schiller's Wort besonnen: "An's Vaterland, an's theure, schliess dich an, das halte fest mit deinem ganzen Herzen; hier sind die starken Wurzeln deiner Kraft." Diese starken Wurzeln treiben jetzt junge Stämme in der sog. "Heimatkunst," die besonders durch H. Sohnrey, W. von Polenz, Fr. Lienhard, Aug. Sperl, Ad. Bartels, u.a.m. vertreten ist und als deren bedeutendsten Repräsentanten man jetzt wohl den mit Recht so schnell berühmt gewordenen Gustav Frenssen (Romane: die Sandgräfin, Die drei Getreuen, Jörn Uhl) ansehen darf.

Auch die Lyrik, diese subjectivste und intimste aller Dichtungsarten, hat im letzten Vierteljahrhundert manche Wandlungen durchgemacht. In den siebenziger Jahren galt immer noch *Em. Geibel* als der bedeutendste deutsche Dichter; aber er ist doch vielfach überschätzt worden. Er besass grosse rhetorische Begabung, äusseres Formtalent, echtes Nationalgefühl und wusste als Dichter stets eine gewisse hohepriesterliche Würde zu bewahren,

aber, so keusch und vornehm seine Poesie auch in jeder Hinsicht ist, elementare Kraft, eigener Ton und jenes feine Gefühl für die innere Form sind ihm doch mehr oder minder abgegangen. An Geibel schlossen sich eine Anzahl kleinere Talente an, auf die er von grossem Einfluss gewesen ist, so die geistlichen Dichter Karl Gerok und Julius Sturm, der patriotische E. Rittershaus, der freisinnige A. Träger, u.a.m.

Später als Geibel, jedoch noch zu seiner Zeit, trat aber eine Reihe Lyriker auf, die trotz aller äusserlichen Erfolge, diese Dichtungsart für manche Jahre geradezu in Verruf gebracht haben; an ihrer Spitze stehen *Julius Wolff* und *Rudolf Baumbach*. Einen ernsten Gehalt, etwas von dem, was des Menschen Herz in seiner Tiefe bewegt, von dem Ewigkeitsgefühl, das in seiner Brust ruht, etwas von Mitleid mit dem tiefen Weh und der vielfachen Noth der Menschheit, das alles findet man in ihren Liedern nicht. Über ihre "Rattenfängerlieder," "Lieder eines fahrenden Gesellen," "Spielmannslieder," und wie sie sonst heissen mögen, kann man, ohne ungerecht zu werden, das bekannte Verschen Goethes schreiben:

Beschneidet die Nägel in Ruh und Fried
Und singt ein Klimpimpimberlied!

Während ihre Sammlungen mit diesen seichten Klimpimpimberliedern in 40 bis 50 Tausend Exemplaren verbreitet wurden, ist das deutsche Volk an dem bedeutendsten und wirklich eigenartigen Dichter jener Zeit, an *Martin Greif*, beinah achtlos vorübergegangen. Bis heute haben es seine Gedichte, die sehr viel schönes, zartes und echt volksthümliches enthalten, kaum bis zur 8 oder 9 Auflage gebracht.

Durch die seichte Oberflächlichkeit jener Dichter wurde die Lyrik bald auf entgegengesetzte Bahnen getrieben. Man wollte durchaus eigenartidief sein, etwas ganz Neues, wo möglich noch nie Dagewesenes geben; aber an Stelle der Tiefe trat zumeist Dunkelheit und Verschwommenheit. Diese Dichter hat man, je nach der besonderen Richtung, die sie vertraten, als Aestheten Artisten und Symbolisten bezeichnet; jedoch passt der letzte Name mehr oder minder für alle. Otto Julius Bierbaum, Franz Evers, Wilhelm von Scholz, Hugo von Hoffmannsthal, Hugó Salus, Stephen George, Christian Morgenstern, Richard Schaukal und vor allen Richard Dehmel sind die bekanntesten unter ihnen; auch einige Frauen, wie M. E. delle Grazie, Lisa Baumfeld u. and. darf man wohl hierher rechnen. Beeinflusst sind all diese Dichter

ausser von dem krankhaften und im Wahnsinn verstorbenen Philosophen Friedrich Nietzsche auch wieder, wie die Naturalisten, vom Auslande, so von gewissen modernen Franzosen (auch von Baudelaire und Verlaine), von den englischen Präraphaeliten und dem Belgier Maurice Maeterlinck. Im grossen und ganzen habe ich diesen Symbolisten gegenüber das Gefühl, als ob sie etwas Unaussprechliches darzustellen versuchten, was wohl, zum Theil wenigstens, der Musik mit ihren unbegrenzten Tönen, nicht aber der Sprache mit ihren scharfbegrenzten Worten möglich ist. So sind denn auch manche ihrer Gedichte geradezu nur musikalisch; man erfreut sich an ihrer melodiosen, singenden und klingenden Sprache, aber man liest darüber hinweg und weiss am Ende nicht, was man eigentlich gelesen hat. Ich will dafür wenigstens ein Beispiel geben und zwar aus der Gedichtsammlung von *Lisa Baumfeld*, die 1897 neunzehnjährig in Wien gestorben ist:

SOMMER.

Und weiche, gold'ne Stunden gleiten
 Durch märchenblaue Himmelsweiten;
 Die Heide bebt . . . von Faltern irr umschauelt . . .
 Traumfalter sind's . . . von Heidehauch gehoben,
 Aus blauem, süssem Heideduft gewoben,
 Die elfengleich dem rothen Mohn entgaukelt. . . .

Es tönt im Schilf . . . von fernen Harfenklängen . . .
 Wie zärtlich Weh'n und lockend liebes Drängen,
 Und Längstverklungnes, das mich raunend riefte . . .
 Und in den schwanken, schlanken Weidezweigen
 Hängt traumhaft banges, sonnenschwüles Schweigen,
 Und fernes Lachen klingelt aus der Tiefe. . . .

Es gleiten weich die gold'nen Geisterstunden,
 Und lieben, wehen, längstverwelkten Wunden
 Entblüht ein Kelch, aus Thau und Sommerwind. . . .
 Der Brunnen schaut so schläfrig, so verwittert,
 Ein leises Atmen durch die Halme zittert . . .
 . . . Ein Hauch von Sommern . . . die vergangen sind. . . .

Solche Poesie ist wohl am besten mit dem Pauluswort characterisirt: tönendes Erz und klingende Schelle.

Als eigentliche Grösse des Symbolismus gilt allgemein *Rich. Dehmel*; in ihm glaubt man die Vereinigung des elementaren Menschen und des vollkommenen Künstlers, den Typus "des gleichmässig leidenden und geniessenden Voll—und Edelmenschen

unserer Zeit" zu sehen. Daß sind grosse Worte, hinter denen wenig steckt, und es würde geradezu traurig um das deutsche Volk stehen, wenn seine Voll—und Edelmenschen so beschaffen wären wie dieser Dehmel, der, vollständig materialistisch gesinnt, in den meisten seiner Lieder eine lascive Lüsterheit zeigt, die, trotzdem sie gedanklich verhüllt und verbrämt ist, geradezu ekelerregend wirkt. Man hat ihn als den Dichter des Erhorchens bezeichnet und ihm nachgerühmt, dass er es verstehe "das ewige Ineinanderspielen von Gefühlen und Gedanken, das räthselhafte Aufblitzen des Gedankens aus dem Gefühl, das nicht minder räthselhafte Erzeugen des Gefühls durch den Gedanken, das ganze reichhaltige Leben in der Seele des Menschen festzuhalten." Darin liegt etwas Wahres, Dehmel erhorcht und erlauscht manches, wofür die meisten gar kein Ohr haben, aber er hat nicht immer die Kraft dies wunderbar Erhorchte in künstlerische Form zu giessen, in ästhetische Gebilde, in wirkliche Gedichte zu bringen. Die eigentliche Gabe der Naturalisten, die unmittelbare Anschauung des Gegebenen, fehlt ihm, oder er fällt da wenigstens oft genug heraus und sucht durch dunkle, hoch klingende, umhüllende Worte zu imponiren, wodurch er unklar und versch wommen wird. Trotzdem hat er ein gewisses Verdienst; er hat die deutsche Lyrik mit neuen Tönen und Farben bereichert, er versteht es oftmals, durch eigenartige Zusammenstellung der Worte und durch feinen Aufbau seiner Strophen eine wunderbare Wirkung hervorzubringen. Aber das Schlechte und Dekadente überwuchert bei ihm doch das Gute, so dass er für einen Normalmenschen ziemlich ungeniessbar ist. Einige seiner besseren Gedichte mögen zu seiner Characteristik hier angeführt werden :

DER SCHLANGENKÄFIG.

Hitze schwingt. Ein Raum voll Schlangen,
Strömt durch Glas und Gitterstangen
Dunst. Zwei Menschen stehn davor,
Die gesättigten Gewürme hängen
Still in bunt verflochtenen Strängen—
Einem Manne raunt ein Weib in's Ohr :

Du, die Schlangen muss ich lieben,
Fühlst du die verhalt'ne Kraft,
Wenn sie langsam sich verschieben ?
Eine Schlange möcht' ich mir wohl zähmen,
Möcht' ihr nicht ein Gliedche lähmen,
Wenn ihr Hals vor Zorn sich strafft.

Eh' sie noch vermag zu fauchen,
 Werden ihre Augen nächtig,
 Sterne tauchen
 Wie aus Brunnenlöchern auf—
 Setz' ich ein Rubinenkrönche
 Auf ihr Stirnche ; still, mei Söhnche,
 Züngle, Jüngle—Ringle, lauf,
 Spiel mit mir ! Du, das war prächtig.

Hitze schwingt. In gleichen Zwischenräumen
 Tippt ihr Finger an die Scheibe,
 Ihre Augen stehn in Träumen,
 Während sich zwei Vipern bäumen,
 Sagt ein Mann zu seinem Weibe :

Du mit deinem nächtigen Blick,
 Bist du so wie die da drinnen ?
 Noch, du, kann ich dir entrinnen !
 Daraus spinnt man sein Geschick,
 Was und wie man hasst und liebt ;
 Komm ! Wir wollen uns besinnen,
 Dass es Thiere in uns giebt.

Hitze schwingt. Zwei dunkle Augen
 Woll'n sich in zwei graue saugen,
 Doch die stählt ein blauer Bann,
 Und zwei Menschen seh'n sich funkelnd an.

AUFBLICK.

Ueber unsere Liebe hängt
 Eine tiefe Trauerweide.
 Nacht und Schatten um uns beide,
 Unsre Stirnen sind gesenkt.
 Wortlos sitzen wir im Dunkeln ;
 Einstmals rauschte hier ein Strom,
 Einstmals sah'n wir Sterne funkeln—
 Ist denn alles tot und trübe ?—
 Horch : ein ferner Mund ! vom Dom !
 Glockenchöre—Nacht—und Liebe.

ABENDGANG.

Die Flur will ruh'n :
 In Halmen, Zweigen
 Ein leises Neigen,
 Aus Wiesen nun
 Die Nebel steigen :
 Ob's wohl zu hören ?
 Lauschen ich will . . .
 Still, Liebchen, still :
 Wir stören
 Dies sel'ge Schweigen !

Ganz im Gegensatz zum Symbolismus und eine Sonderstellung einnehmend, steht *Detlev von Liliencron*. Ursprünglich Soldat und als Hauptmann verabschiedet, trat er erst mit vierzig Jahren in die Litteratur. Gleich mit seiner ersten Gedichtsammlung "Adjutantenritte" hatte er einen unbestrittenen Erfolg. Seine Poesie, völlig frei von konventioneller Nachahmung, ist frisch und ursprünglich, echt und kraftvoll. Seine Form ist rein und schön, manchmal etwas spröde, aber stets von gutem Klang. Er ist ein Meister in der Knappheit, besonders in seinen Balladen und in seinen erzählenden Gedichten; aber er versteht auch prächtige Natur—und Stimmungsbilder zu formen. Leider kann man auch ihn nur mit einer gewissen Einschränkung empfehlen; wie Dehmel ist auch er sehr stark in sexuelle Erotik verstrickt. Während Dehmel die Sache lüstern verhüllt, ist Liliencron brutal offen. Beide vergessen zu oft was Schiller den Künstlern zugerufen hat: "Der Menschheit Würde ist in eure Hand gegeben, bewahret sie!" und was Grillparzer von jedem echten Dichter verlangt: "Auf die Masse soll und muss jeder Dichter wirken, mit der Masse nie." Auch von Liliencron sollen wenigstens drei Gedichte angeführt werden.

KLEINE BALLADE.

Hoch weht mein Buseh, hell klirrt mein Schild
Im Wolkenbruch der Feindesklingen,
Die malen kein Madonnenbild
Und tönen nicht wie Harfensingen.

Und in den Staub der letzte Schelm,
Der mich vom Sattel wollte stechen!
Ich schlug ihm Feuer aus dem Helm
Und sah ihn tot zusammenbrechen.

Ihr wolltet stören meinen Herd?
Ich zeigte euch die Mannessehne,
Und lachend trockne ich mein Schwert
An meines Rosses schwarzer Mähne.

HEIDELIED.

Die Mittagssonne brütet auf der Heide,
Im Süden droht ein schwarzer Ring.
Verdurstet hängt das magere Getreide,
Behaglich treibt ein Schmetterling.

Ermattet ruhn der Hirt und seine Schafe,
Die Ente träumt im Binsenkraut,
Die Ringelnatter sonnt im trägen Schläfe
Unregbar ihre Tigerhaut.

Im Zickzack zuckt ein Blitz, und Wasserfluten
 Entstürzen gierig dunkeln Zelt,
 Es jauchzt der Sturm und peitscht mit seinen Ruten
 Erlösend meine Heidewelt.

NACH DEM BALL.

Setz in des Wagens Finsterniss
 Getrost den Atlasschuh,
 Die Füchse schäumen in's Gebiss,
 Und nun, Johann, fahr zu.
 Es ruht an meiner Schulter aus
 Und schläft, ein müder Veilchenstrauss,
 Die kleine, blonde Komtesse.

Die Nacht versinkt in Sumpf und Moor,
 Ein erster, rother Streif,
 Der Kiebitz schüttelt sich im Rohr
 Aus Schopf und Pelz den Reif.
 Noch hört im Traum der Rosse Lauf,
 Dann schlägt die blauen Augen auf
 Die kleine, blonde Komtesse.

Die Sichel klingt im Wiesengrund,
 Der Tauber girrt und lacht,
 Am Rade kläfft der Bauernhund,
 All Leben ist erwacht.
 Ach, wie die Sonne köstlich schien—
 Wir fuhren schnell nach Gretna Green,
 Ich und die kleine Komtesse.

Neben diesen sog. "modernen" Dichtern, an denen man eine reine, ungetrübte Freude kaum haben kann, steht eine Reihe deutscher Lyriker, über die die zünftige Kritik zwar nicht viel redet und streitet, deren edle und keusche Poesie aber einen ungetrübten Genuss bietet. Und da darf man auch von unserer Zeit sagen, wie einst Gottfried von Strassburg von seiner: "Der Nachtigallen der sind viel!" Aus ihrer grossen Zahl seien wenigstens einige hervorgehoben, die sich bisher am meisten durch eigenen Ton hervorgethan haben: Ferdinand Avenarius, Fritz Lienhard, Karl Busse, Otto Ernst (Schmidt), Gustav Falke, Fritz Philippi, Leopold Weber, Karl Hunnius, Karl Ernst Knodt, ferner unten den Frauen: Frida Schanz, Alberta von Puttkammer, Agnes Miegel, T. Resa (Theresa Gröhe), Anna Ritter u.a.m.

Einige von ihnen seien kurz characterisirt. In seinen ersten Gedichten "Wandern und Werden" zeigt sich *Avenarius* noch abhängig von älteren Vorbildern u. and. auch von Heine, aber in

seiner neuen Sammlung "Stimmen und Bilder" offenbart sich ein eigener Character. Er gebietet über eine feine, individuelle Stimmungsliryk, die zwar nicht immer und Jedem gefällt, aber stets einen Zug in's Grosse und Allgemeine hat. So z. B. auch in dem Gedicht

DIR.

Gott, einen Menschen zeig mir, der unbeirrt
 Von Lockendem, nie von Drohendem weggeschreckt,
 Befreiten Haupts durch Dulden und Thaten geht,
 Rein über'm Staube,
 Dass bei ihm rasten kann glaubend mein ganzes Ich,
 Dass er die Menschen mir zeige als dein Geschlecht—
 Denn, sieh, zu lieben deine Geschöpfe, Gott,
 Siehe, ich brauch es
 Wie deine Sonne!

So rang ich oft beklommen,
 Das Herz zum Brechen schwer,
 Dann ist der Friede kommen,
 Mein Weib, mit dir daher.

Eine kerngesunde, frische und liebenswürdig naive Natur offenbart der Elsässer Lienhard in seinen melodischen, glockenhellen Liedern. Ein echter und rechter Deutscher, trotzdem er noch im französischen Elsass geboren wurde, wurzelt er voll und ganz in seiner Heimath Grund, von der er singt:

Dich hab' ich lieb, mein starker Wasgau du!
 Bergpredigt ist dein mächtig Rauschen mir,
 Dass ich ein Mann geworden, dank' ich dir!

Diese Heimathliebe, die aber zugleich das ganze deutsche Vaterland umfasst, spiegelt sich sogar in seinen zarten Liebesliedern wieder, so in der

WIDMUNG.

Diese Blätter aus dem Hochwald,
 Weisst du, Lieb, wem ich sie schenke?
 Dir, du meine allzu Ferne,
 Der ich Tag um Tag gedenke!

Als ein Kind, du süsser Wildfang,
 Liebt' ich dich aus Herzensgrunde!
 Als ein Jüngling tief im Wasgau
 Hing ich stürmisch dir am Munde.

Hüllte mich in deine Haare,
 Lauschte deines Herzens Schlägen
 Und erflehte meiner Arbeit
 Einer Waldfee Zaubersegen.

O, der Wasgau, unser Wasgau !
 Hörst du sein gewaltig Rauschen ?
 Noch einmal soll er dem Liede
 Unsrer Hochlandsliebe lauschen !

Karl Busse hat die grossen Hoffnungen, zu denen seine ersten Gedichte berechtigten, leider noch nicht erfüllt. Er besitzt einen feinen Formensinn, ein tiefes Verständniss für Versbau und Wohlklang der Sprache, so dass seine Verse rein und klar dahinfließen, aber er bleibt zumeist an der Oberfläche haften und dringt nur selten zu ernster und tiefer Empfindung hindurch. Aus seiner neusten Sammlung "Vagabunden" gebe ich zwei Gedichte, in denen er eintieferen Ton anschlägt.

BEKASSINEN.

Hoch über die Wiesen hört'ich sie rufen,
 Als höhnten sie spottend mein Vaterhaus,
 Da krachten die wackligen Treppenstufen
 Und ohne Mütze stürmt' ich hinaus.
 In zackigem Flug und sonnenbeschieden
 Schossen sie hin auf leuchtender Spur,
 Doch ich wie ein Pfeil um die Wette mit ihnen,
 Und fiebernd strafft'ich die Bogenschnur.

He hopp ! Ihr Gräben und moorigen Gräfte,
 Wie nahm euch der sehnige Knabenfuss !
 Und immer von neuem empor in die Lüfte
 Sandt' ich der Pfeile surrenden Gruss.
 Kam jeder doch kraftlos zurück aus der Weite :
 Der Bogen zu schwach und die Bolzen zu schwer—
 Da schob ich den Krempel einst weinend zur Seite :
 Ich mochte nicht mehr !

Nun brachte der Wiesen sonniger Schimmer
 Mir heute das Spiel des Knaben zurück :
 Ein thörichte Jäger ist er noch immer
 Ein wilder Jäger nach Glanz und Glück.
 Und warnend hör' ich ein Stimmlein singen :
 Die flüchtigen Vögel, du trafst sie nie !
 Herzbruder, das Glück hat dieselben Schwingen
 Wie sie.

REINE STUNDE.

Es schweigt der Kampf. Auch Lust und Lachen ruhn ;
Nach lautem Tag hör' ich mich selber nun.

Was ich verlor, was mir im Lärm zerrann,
So viel vergessness sieht mich lieblich an.

Und meine Seele weitet sich und lauscht,
Wie tief in mir ein heil'ger Brunnen rauscht.

O rausche fort . . . und eh' die Stunde schied,
Full' diese Brust und füge dich zum Lied,

Das meines Wesens tiefstes Sein umhegt
Und ganz die Reinheit dieser Stunde trägt.

Knodt, Philippi und Hunnius sind alle drei deutsche Pastoren ; der erste in der ländlichen Stille des Odenwaldes, der andere in Hessen-Nassau und der dritte in Livland. Sie sind bisher erst mit je einer Gedichtsammlung hervorgetreten, aber was sie darin bieten, ist doch eigenartig und formvollendet genug, um noch Grösseres von ihnen erwarten zu dürfen. Naturgemäsz zeichnen sich auch alle drei durch ein tiefes und echtes religiöses Empfinden aus. Je ein Lied theile ich von ihnen mit. Von *Knodt* das

SOMMERLIED.

Ueber die Aehren fliegt ein Schein
Reifender Sommerlichter.
Ich kniee mich in das Werden hinein,
Als sah ich den Schöpfer, den Dichter.

Als hielte die Erde Gottesdienst,
Und Engel im lichten Gewande
Breiteten segnend ein Goldgespinnst
Ueber die leuchtenden Lande.

Von Philippi ein Gedicht an sein Weib :

Du hältst mich für so grosz und gut,
Glaubst nur das Beste allerwegen.
Und wenn ich sage : ich bin klein—
Dann schüttelst du das Haupt dagegen.

Und wenn ich halte dich im Arm
Und schau der Kinderaugen Leuchten,
Wehr'ich's umsonst, du gläubig Lieb,
Dasz Thränen mir das Auge feuchten.

Und eine Bitte steigt mir auf
 Dann recht aus tiefem Herzensgrunde :
 Zu werden so, wie du mich nennst
 Aus deinem lieben reinen Munde.

Von *Hunnius* gebe ich ein Lied, das an Joh. 4, 10 anknüpft :

Weine nur—und lasz die Hände
 Falten sich in süszer Scham,
 Weil die Zeit der Sonnenwende
 Auch für deine Seele kam.

Er, der deiner Augen Bronnen
 Mit lebend'gem Wasser füllt,
 Ist der Geber jener Wonnen,
 Deren Strom nun ewig quillt.

Deines Lebens dunkle Pfade
 Lichten sich von aller Schuld :
 Unermesslich ist die Gnade,
 Unergründlich ist die Huld.

Zeiten seliger Erhebung
 Brechen für die Seele an,
 Da aus Quellen der Vergebung
 Nun lebend'ges Wasser rann.

Magst du nie zu träumen wännen
 Trunken noch vom jungen Wein :
 Weine nur— es sollen Thränen
 Boten neuen Lebens sein.

In die Reihe dieser Dichter darf ich wohl auch zwei Deutsche in Amerika stellen, nämlich *J. W. Theisz* in Californien und *Heinrich Rembe* in Canada. Beider Sammlungen "Gepflückt am Wege" und "Aus der Einsamkeit einer Canadischen Landpfarre" sind von der Kritik günstig aufgenommen. *Theisz* besitzt, trotzdem er nicht in Deutschland geboren und erzogen ist, ein feines Sprachgefühl, ist aber in seinen älteren Gedichten etwas weit-schweifig, seine neusten aber sind auch in der Form künstlerisch vollendeter geworden. Aus seiner Sammlung gebe ich eins der kürzeren Lieder:

O AUGEN, IHR DUNKELN AUGEN. :

Mein Lenz lag im Winter begraben,
 Im Herzen war Trauer und Weh.
 Es deckte die Rosen des Frühlings
 Seit Jahren der frostige Schnee.

Da lachte die glückliche Zukunft
 Aus herrlichen Wimpern mich an.
 O Augen, ihr dunkeln Augen,
 Was habt ihr mir plötzlich gethan ?

Was rinnt aus dem Winter des Herzens
 Mir über die Wangen so heisz ?
 Wie wurde zu glänzenden Perlen
 So plötzlich das jährige Eis ?

Wie liegen so blitzend die Fluren
 Mit Frühlingsrubinen besät ?
 O Augen, ihr dunkelen Augen,
 Gott segne euch frühe und spät !

Von *Rembe* gebe ich das bisher ungedruckte Stimmungsbild :

VOLLMONDZAUBER.

Stille kam auf weichen Sohlen
 Sommernacht heraufgezogen,
 Vollen Mondes milde Leuchte
 Zittert leis am Himmelsbogen.

Füllt mit seinem fahlen Lichte
 Alle Höhen, alle Tiefen,
 Weckt geheimnisvolle Kräfte,
 Die am Tag verborgen schliefen.

Quellen rauschen auf und Bronnen
 Und der Blätter Flüstersänge,
 Mondlicht spielt auf feinen Saiten
 Tages überhörte Klänge.

Von dem milden Schein umspinnen,
 Steh' ich wie im Traum verloren,
 Lausche sinnend all den Stimmen,
 Die die lichte Nacht geboren.

Unaufhaltsam zieht die Mondnacht
 Mich in ihre Zauberkreise :
 Alle Brunnen meines Herzens
 Springen auf und spielen leise.

Für den bedeutendsten unter all diesen Dichtern halte ich jedoch bis jetzt *Gustav Falke*. Er ist allerdings vom Symbolismus ausgegangen, hat aber, da er eine viel zu gesunde und künstlerisch gereifte Natur ist, dessen Uebertreibungen nie mitgemacht und sich nach und nach völlig von ihm losgelöst. Er hat bisher fünf Gedich-

sammlungen erscheinen lassen: Mynheer der Tod, Tanz und Andacht, Zwischen zwei Nächten, Neue Fahrt, Mit dem Leben. Eine gut gewählte Auswahl aus seinen Dichtungen giebt Dr. M. Spanier in seinem Büchlein: Gustav Falke als Lyriker. Falke ist eine durch und durch künstlerische Natur mit kraftvoller und gut realistischer Anschauung. Ob er durch ein einsames Stranddorf wandert oder auf den Gesang einer Muschel lauscht, ob sein Kind ihm eine Blume reicht oder ein Bauernbursch auf plumpem Gaul an seinem Fenster vorbeireitet, ob ein Gedanke ihn blitzschnell durchfährt oder ein starkes Gefühl ihn überkommt—bei ihm wird alles zum Gedicht. Dazu besitzt er eine Beherrschung der Sprache, dasz er den Vers mit Leichtigkeit zwingt und den Inhalt auch immer in die passende Form zu bringen weisz. So sind seine Verse nie gezwungen, sondern flieszen natürlich, leicht und graziös dahin und sind von einer Innigkeit und Innerlichkeit, wie man sie nicht allzuoft findet. Auszerdem besitzt er noch etwas, was man bei einem Lyriker selten findet, einen feinen warmherzigen Humor. Dass er bei alledem doch noch nach immer grözzerer Vervollkommnung strebt, zeigt uns sein

GEBET.

Herr, lasz mich hungern dann und wann
Satt sein macht stumpf und träge,
Und schick mir Feinde, Mann um Mann,
Kampf hält die Kräfte rege.

Gieb leichten Fusz zu Spiel und Tanz,
Flugkraft in gold'ne Ferne,
Und häng den Kranz, den vollen Kranz
Mir höher in die Sterne.

Aus seinem groszen Reichthum will ich wenigstens noch zwei Gedichte herausnehmen, ein tieferntes und ein liebenswürdig schalkhaftes:

AM HIMMELSTHOR.

Ich träumte mich auf einem bangen Weg,
Auf einem hohen schwindelschmalen Steg,
Der führte mich bis an das Himmelsthor,
Da stand ich lange, ohne Mut, davor.

Und zitternd griff ich nach dem rostigen Ring,
Das Himmelsglöcklein an zu läuten fing,
Mein Herz erschrak vor seinem hellen Klang,
Ein armer Sünder auf dem letzten Gang.

Da rasselte ein groszes Schlüsselbund,
 Ein Knarren bis der Himmel offen stund,
 Doch hascht' ich nur von seiner Herrlichkeit
 Mit scheuem Blinzeln einen Streifen breit,

Ein Wiesengrün und einen Engelsfusz,
 Sankt Peter barg mir jeden weitem Grusz
 Mit breitem Rücken und erschreckte mich
 Mit barscher Frage: "Freund, wer schickte dich?"

Mich schickte keiner. "Und was suchst du hier?"
 Nach Erdennoth ein ruhiges Quartier,
 Ein Flügelpaar und himmlisches Gewand,
 Ein Tröpfchen Thau aus Gottes hohler Hand.

"Hast du zu solchen Dingen auch ein Recht?
 Warst du auf Erden ein getreuer Knecht?"
 Ich war Poet. "Und kommst zu Fuss hier an?
 Wo hast du deine Flügel hingethan?"

Ich schämte mich, weil sie so sehr beschmutzt
 Und ihre schönsten Federn arg gestutzt,
 Weil durch das Fliegen nach dem Flitterkranz
 Des Menschenruhmes dunkel ward ihr Glanz.

"Und deinen Kranz?" Ich hab' ihn abgelegt,
 Dasz man mit andern ihn zum Kehrlicht fegt,
 Und komm' nun nackt und ohne Glorienschein—
 Da sprach der Pförtner gütig: "Komm, tritt ein."

DAS MITLEIDIGE MAEDEL.

Trug mein Herz ich auf der Hand,
 Wehte ein Wind her über's Land,
 Weg war es.

Kam ein Mütterchen. Mit Verlaub,
 Habt ihr mein Herz? Die Alte war taub,
 Nickte nur.

Kam der Jäger, brummte was,
 So ein Herz, was schert mich das,
 Frag weiter.

Fragt' ich die Wege auf und ab,
 Keiner mein Herz mir wieder gab,
 Weg war es.

Kam zuletzt des Hufschmieds Kind.
Mädel, sahst du kein Herz im Wind?
Lachte sie leis :

Hat's auch der Wind nicht, hast du doch keins,
Dauerst mich Bub : da nimm meins,
Aber halt's fest.

Damit will ich diesen Ueberblick über die neuere deutsche Lyrik schlieszen. Der Symbolismus mit allen verwandten dekadenten Erscheinungen ist glücklicher Weise nie in's Volk gedrungen, und wird auch nicht hineindringen. In der ungesunden Stickluft der Grossstadt entstanden, wird er auch dort wieder vergehen. Die neuste deutsche Dichtung aber hält sich wieder an das Klassische, d. h. das Bleibende. Und das ist das Rechte. Denn jede wahre Kunst soll eine Bildnerin des Volkes, jeder echte Dichter ein Lehrer der Menschheit sein.

JOHN RICHARD GREEN.

J. F. VANEVRY, B.A., NAPANEE.

To certain of us nothing proves such a stimulus as the study of the life-endavor of a man who has kept within his range of vision the guiding light of a single, noble purpose, whose every step has been taken with a confidence and devotion worthy of his object, and who has finally won his goal, and laid himself down to rest, "content and weary and undishonored." The attainment of a noble aim often involves temporary failure, lack of recognition years of silent and depressing work, loss of health, of ease and of friends. "Art is long and time is fleeting" and often "the blind fury with the abhorred shears slits the thin-spun life" before the task is wrought. In the past, however, have existed a few, whose lives have not failed to leave an impress on the world's thought. In his youth Milton despairingly wrote, "My late spring no bud or blossom sheweth"; round the path of his life "lay a damp," and with passing years "the world seemed dark and wide, his one talent lodged with him useless." Nevertheless the glorious work he left behind him is an immortal testimony to his persistent genius. It was the undaunted effort of Luther that places him as the greatest name in the history of the Reformation. The influences of Wesley, of Wilberforce and of Howard were potent because their life-activity was guided and strengthened by a singleness of purpose. Bismarck and Cavour, each for his own native land, wrought out their plans, conceived under the energizing glow of patriotism, and finally realized amid opposition, intrigue and war.

Such men of force and unity of purpose command our study and admiration. We learn to believe in them. Their messages are sources of strength, and of encouragement. "All mental and moral force," wrote Emerson, "is a positive good. It goes out from you whether you will or not, and profits me of whom you never thought. I cannot even hear of personal vigor of any kind, great power of performance, without fresh resolution. We are emulous of all that man can do."

John Richard Green wrote and lived for the purpose of giving his countrymen a vivid and unified perception of the processes of growth of the English people, and he succeeded. To this single

aim he clung all through life in spite of many deterring influences. But his tenacity of purpose did not prevent him from engaging in other activities. These were gradually and unconsciously shaping his opinions, widening his sympathies, and perfecting his talents as a writer of history, so that, when he died before his time in 1883, he was honored already as one of England's great historians, holding rival place with Macaulay, Froude and Freeman. It will be our endeavor to examine the nature of his work, and to see how far he was influenced by his early studies, his clerical career, his travels and his friendships.

He was born at Oxford in 1837 of humble parentage, and his first years were intimately associated with the romance and tradition surrounding this ancient city of colleges. We are told by himself that his boyish imagination was kindled "by the solemn services of Magdalen College, the white-robed choir, the long train of divines and fellows, and the President—moving like some mysterious dream of the past among the punier creatures of the present." However his early days were not all happy ones. Entering Magdalen College Grammar School at the early age of eight years, he was subjected to the harsh, flogging methods of obsolete pedagogy. He did not excel at any of the English school-boy games, although he was active enough to take delight in the rush and excitement of the playground. Reading was his chief pleasure. The travels of Marco Polo, the adventures of *Ivanhoe*, the stories of Hume's History, the mysteries of church architecture and the history of early religious sects stimulated his mind, and fostered that love for the picturesque that is so characteristic of the literary work of his maturity.

Under the guidance of tutors he was successful in winning an open scholarship at Jesus College, Oxford, in 1854. The next five years were among the most unpleasant of his life for various reasons. Although his social qualities were of the brightest, and his intellectual attainments well-known, yet he made but few friends, and gained but a medium standing in his college work. The fact was he disliked the narrow, formal range of studies, refused to limit his investigations to the prescribed courses, and followed his own tastes by a systematic study of history, English literature, geology and architecture. Near the close of his course he decided to take orders, believing that it would give him a position of some pecuniary value and at the same time an opportunity "to hide in his study and write." His religious enthusiasm then was sincere,

although he had expressed himself as dissatisfied with the current theological doctrines. However he had not his views sufficiently clear and defined to make the adoption of a clerical career inconsistent with honesty.

His first curacy was under the Rev. Henry Ward at St. Barnabas, in the East End of London. At the home of Mr. Ward the young scholar found a comfortable seclusion—for which he had always longed—rendered all the more precious on account of the sympathy of Mrs. Ward, whose character was to him “an ideal of Christian womanhood, which hushes and awes my own sceptical brain into a silent reverence and love.” He threw himself so actively into all the worrying details of parish work that his health, already impaired, gave way. After several changes, he was appointed by Bishop Tait to the perpetual curacy of St. Philip’s at Stepney, in East London, a parish “of dull, straight streets, of monotonous houses already marked with premature decay, and here and there alleys haunted by poverty and disease and crime.” His poor health, however, continued to hamper the efficient discharge of his duties; his liberal tendencies, now more pronounced, and his sympathies with the “Broad Church” party, of which Arthur Stanley was a leading member, estranged him from the co-operation of his fellow-curates; his income, insufficient to meet the needs of a generous curate working in the most squalid district of London, had to be increased by literary work done for the *Saturday Review*, and he always withdrew himself with a vast feeling of relief from the pestering cares of his mission to the more congenial and quiet work of the historian. It was, therefore, from the bottom of his heart that, writing to Freeman in 1869 announcing his appointment as librarian at Lambeth under Archbishop Tait, he said: “Won’t it be jolly to have no sermons to preach on Sundays!” To him the quiet of Lambeth Library was “like still waters after the noise of the east.” It afforded him a nominal connection with the church, and, at the same time, as the office was purely honorary, an opportunity to consecrate his talents to that work upon which he had set his heart.

From this time until his death his life was spent wholly in the service of literature. At times his writing was interrupted by travels in France and Italy undertaken in search of health, as his physician, Sir Andrew Clark, had advised him, at the close of his clerical career, of the dangerous condition of his lungs. Of friends he had many. They believed in him, and, charmed by his enthusi-

astic temperament, assisted him in every possible way. Among them were Professor Boyd Dawkins, E. A. Freeman, Professor Stubbs, Mr. Bryce, Mr. MacMillan, his publisher, and Dean Stanley. All encouraged him in his ambition to write a book which should live after his death as a monument to his studies and researches. His letters to these friends, especially to Mr. Boyd Dawkins, indicate how their sympathy was a source of buoyant strength amid the gloomy days of solitary work and ill-health.

The "Short History" was finished in 1874, after five years of labor, and its success was immediate. Its appearance supplied a want. Macaulay had written twenty-five years before, but here was a unified account of not merely a section of English history, but of the growth of the nation from its very beginnings. It was written with a force and vivacity that was sustained throughout, and its short compass, necessitating the greatest possible condensation, appealed to the popular mind. Public recognition of his talents came also from his colleagues in historical research. He was elected a member of the Athenæum Society, and a corresponding member of the Massachusetts Historical Society. Even his own Oxford College, with which his associations had been so unpleasant, honored him with a fellowship. In 1878 he received the honorary degree of LL.D. from Edinburgh University.

Green was now freed from the necessity of doing *Saturday Review* work as a means of support. He entered at once with all his former enthusiasm upon the composition of the "Big Book," the "History of the English People" in four volumes. The fourth volume appeared in 1880. This work was more pretentious than the first, more accurate and detailed, and the same high level of descriptive writing was maintained. During these years his interest in religious questions, in politics, especially in the Irish Home Rule agitation, and in educational matters never for one moment flagged. He remained an active patriot throughout his life.

His marriage in 1877 brought him a companionship for which he had often expressed a longing, and his wife's active appreciation of his ideals kept his spirit from sinking under the disease that threatened now to bring him down. With the greatest patience and industry he set to work to write an account of the earlier periods of our country, and the result was the "Making of England." The last winter of his life was spent at Mentone, dictating his "Conquest of England" to his wife, and consoled by the loving attentions of all his friends. However the task of complet-

ing this work proved too great for his strength. He left it unfinished, and died in March, 1883. His strength of will, mental energy, and affection for his friends, from whom he was reluctant to part, had really kept him alive all the winter. Of him may be quoted the words he himself used in a sermon in memory of Mrs. Henry Ward, "Death came as no strange visitant to one who stood on the very verge of Time looking out into Eternity."

The life-work of Green consisted in giving his countrymen a history of the development of the people—such an account of the social and political evolution of England as would be understood by the people at large, and appreciated by students and scholars. He had been evolving his ideals of historical work from the time he was an undergraduate at Oxford. The historical tendencies of his mind are noted in his papers to the *Oxford Chronicle* in 1859, in which he depicted the Oxford of Jacobite times with all its wild unruliness, and displayed a wide knowledge of antiquities, and an appreciation of the importance of town life. He left Oxford with the purpose of becoming the historian of the Church of England. As he read and thought, however, his views broadened. To him the history of the Church meant "the narrative of Christian civilization," and to arrive at a knowledge of this he would have "to investigate the progress of thought, of religion, of liberty—even the material progress of England." He set himself to work "to discover" the history of England, elaborating an ambitious plan to cover the nature of the earliest influences moulding the people, so as to indicate "the final formation of the English people, and the final settlement of English liberty and the English Constitution." The demands made by his clerical work upon his time and health forced him to relinquish this ambitious scheme for one more within his powers of performance. In 1869 he offered to write for MacMillan, the publisher, a "Short History of the English People," "which might serve as an introduction to better things, if I lived, and might stand for some work done if I didn't."

The underlying plan of his "Short History" is different from that of ordinary histories. "Every word," he wrote to Freeman, "I have written in reviews and essays through the last ten years went to protest against the tendency to a merely external political view of human affairs, and to a belief that political history, to be intelligible and just, must be based on social history in its largest sense." He did not care to write simply a chronicle of events, with formal political divisions according to kings, because he maintained

that there were social forces of more vital value than isolated external facts. In this respect he differed both from his friend Freeman, and from the German school of historians under Ranke. Both Green and Freeman had theories in regard to the philosophy of history. Both understood the continuity of history. Freeman declared that European history was one unbroken drama, no part of which can be rightly understood without reference to the other parts that come before and after it. Green did not fail to appreciate his friend's views and, after reading the first volume of Freeman's "Norman Conquest" wrote, "my work must be on the same line—the line, that is, of the essential unity and national development of our country."

When we consider the practical working out of these theories, however, these two colleagues were vastly different in style and method. It was the difference between the mode of a scientific investigator and that of a literary artist. The one, Freeman, following the pragmatic standpoint of historians, such as Ranke in Germany, Guizot in France, and Sir Henry Ellis and other editors of the Museum and Rolls records in England, worshipped original authorities, approached historical data with the legal acumen of a lawyer, weighing, testing and sifting evidence, and labored after truth in the minutest details. It was this unwearied diligence and desire for accuracy that prompted Freeman to devote fifty pages of his "Norman Conquest" to a description of the battle of Hastings. His readers are led into a very maze of topographical detail, so that they lose all enthusiasm for the story, and all understanding of the continuity and directness of historical movements in their admiration for the author's splendid scholarship. The result is that this great work of English history is read by the few, and appreciated only by trained scholars. Green, on the other hand, although indebted very often to Freeman's clear, logical sense, saw the error of expecting that the majority of English readers care anything for minute encyclopædic treatment of history. His wonderful grasp of the subject in its unity, his command of details, his sympathy for people and their struggles, his æsthetic sense of perspective and proportion, and his charm of simple, vivid literary expression combined to make him the popular historian he is. It is true that his "Short History" was assailed by some as inaccurate in many of its facts and conclusions. It was written at first under serious disadvantages. His ill health, his want of verbal memory, and his forced absence, at times,

from reliable sources of information made it possible for many errors to creep in. But these were eliminated in subsequent editions, and, indeed, the presence of such minor inaccuracies did not mar the truth and force of the whole structure. As Bishop Stubbs wrote: "There was no department of our national records that he had not studied, and I think I may say, mastered. Hence, I think, the unity of his dramatic scenes and the cogency of his historical arguments. Like other people, he made mistakes sometimes; but scarcely ever does the correction of his mistakes affect either the essence of the picture or the force of the argument." The social side of the national development appealed to him most. He preferred, contrary to Freeman's opinions, to devote only seven pages to the Wars of the Roses, and fifteen or sixteen to Colet, Erasmus and Thomas More. His grasp of social forces underlying such movements as the decline of the English freeman, the growth of towns and the peasant revolt appealed to the average Englishman, and helped him to form an intelligent conception of the evolution of the people.

During eight years (1861-1868) Green was occupied with tasks that demanded no little energy, tact, sympathy and sound common sense. We refer to his clerical duties. He threw himself actively into personal work among the poor of London, influencing more by the power of his kind and bright personality than by the vigor and truth of his pulpit utterances. He established night-schools and reading circles; tended to the sick during the cholera ravages of 1866; collected subscriptions for educational work; conducted fresh air excursions into Epping Forest; wrote scathing articles in the *Saturday Review* against indiscriminate charitable donations, and all the time attended to the ecclesiastical duties of his parish. He became an admirer of Edward Denison, and wrote a description of the life and work of this "Brother of the Poor." During these years he was also reading widely, searching records at the British Museum, verifying archaeological theories in collaboration with Prof. Boyd Dawkins, planning his "Short History," and other literary ventures, and writing light and serious essays for the *Saturday Review*. The nature of his clerical work took hold of his sympathies, enlarged his human interests, and was reflected in all his essays and histories. He caught the spirit of the people. He understood the pulsating life of communities. If his History had been written without this vivifying glow of charity shedding its light upon the hidden

mysteries of the past, it would have been more academical in tone, less sympathetic and human.

His first visit to the Continent was in 1867, when he accompanied Freeman on a trip to Normandy. After that he spent several months of each year in the south, sometimes living in the towns of the Riviera, sometimes in Florence and Rome. He took a keen delight in travelling, and absorbed impressions on every side. He studied the history of the communities he visited, and made himself acquainted with the customs, politics and physical characteristics of the place. Florence, San Remo and Rome appealed to him with their wonders of art and architecture. He would spend days in sight-seeing, not flitting from spot to spot, crowding impressions confusedly together, but lingering around old buildings, churches, towers and tombs, endeavoring in the interests of truth, to connect these evidences with the social and religious life of Italy. His sojourn in the south of Europe tended also to strengthen his appreciation of natural beauty. Even amid the depressing surroundings of London life his sensitive spirit felt that there was poetry in the work and toil of the present. When the demands of ill-health forced him to leave old England for strange lands, he was delighted, even if it meant separation from friends and established customs, for it meant also a contact with poetry of a different sense, the poetry of Italian skies and valleys, the poetry of quaint customs and language. The power of easy literary expression helped him to preserve for us some of the delightful influences of Italy. In his letters and in "Sketches in Sunshine" there are beautiful pen-pictures of places and persons. His History is marked by the same power, that of suggestive word-painting, of a charming flow of language, of the use of the proper word to catch the right idea, whether he is describing the conversion of Northumbria, the character of William Pitt, or the attempt on the five members by Charles the First. Green regarded his History as a work of art, not as a vehicle for the expression of certain views on social evolution. It is a series of descriptions, suggestive, vivid and connected, without the intrusion of any immoderate or prejudiced opinions. As we have said, his was the work of an artist, and Italian influences played no small part in the perfection of that work.

Throughout his entire life John Richard Green was blessed by the gift of friends. His nature was so bright, unaffected and cheerful, and his range of activity so wide that he attracted to himself

the admiration and affection of some of England's greatest men. Dean Stanley brought him out of the slough of despond at Oxford by teaching him the gospel of work; Professor Boyd Dawkins, once his school-mate, remained the truest of friends all through life; Freeman was his colleague and friendly critic; Gladstone formed his ideal in statesmanship and MacMillan his guide in business. He was on intimate terms with Mr. Bryce, Bishop Stubbs, Mr. and Mrs. Humphrey-Ward and many others. Much of his success was due to the encouragement of these friends, for his difficulties at times were so great as to dismay even the stoutest of hearts. His earnestness and wit, his generosity and human sympathy, his many-sided activity, and his calm, modest judgment, that valued his own work not over-much, mark him as one of the most lovable characters that ever wrote.

LITERATURE IN THE HIGH SCHOOLS.

A. M. BURNHAM, B.A., COLLINGWOOD.

In beginning, I need hardly say anything with regard to the importance of English Literature in our schools, both Public and High. However the emphasis may shift with reference to Classics, Moderns, Science, Mathematics and Manual Training, the high importance of English Literature must surely be constant in all reasonable systems of education. Nobody will doubt this when he reflects what good literature is, the record of the best in life, the product of the best minds in their best moments. In spite of what Wordsworth may say in extreme terms about the superiority of Nature's teaching, can we think without a shudder of a world without a literature, without the ennobling influence of the beautiful expression of grand and elevating thoughts and emotions, without those appeals to our higher spiritual nature, which make us forget the base, sordid, material aspects of life? But I am not here to convince you of these truisms. It is a question of how a teacher of literature is to lead his pupils into the promised land, how to make them appraise these treasures at their true value, how to bring them into relation with that wonderful, silent world of literature, how to induce them to love and revere the works of genius and enrich their own lives thereby.

I have taught literature to pupils only after they have passed the Entrance, so all I know of literature as taught in the Public Schools is from the pupil's attitude towards it in the First form, and from the opinions of others. High School teachers are very prone to look askance at Public School teachers and their methods to saddle the blame on them for spoiling the material in the first place, so I do not like to follow this lead with too much eagerness. But the general belief seems to be that literature in a great many Public Schools is simply language teaching, that is, the meaning of isolated words, the grammatical connection, the parrot-like memorization of passages; in short, whatever relates to the study of mere dead form without any adequate reference to the animating, spiritual principle embodied. This dead conception of literature is as different from the true one as a marble image is from a living

man animate with thought and feeling. Such teaching ignores the natural union of form and content, it fails to see that literary form itself is without value unless it embodies some true, powerful, beautiful spirit, which must be sought diligently as the pearl without price.

This barren style of teaching literature, not, I believe, confined to the Public Schools, is due to several causes. Often the teachers themselves are deficient in power, culture, scholarship, knowledge of man and life. If such is the case, all they can do is to give the pupil a mere dictionary knowledge of the selection, teach him how to analyze it grammatically or memorize it, or at most impress the mere connection of events, in a shallow manner, upon his mind. If taught in this way, literature becomes the deadest and blankest of subjects, grammar and arithmetic are positively inspiring beside it. Of course this language lesson is not entirely barren of result, it is useful to know that "limpid" means "clear," and "reiterate," "say again," but so far as real mind culture, deepening of character, development of thought and emotion go, it is barren and the mind life, the feeling, the imagination, the idealizing faculties of the pupil are not materially influenced, unless indirectly, perhaps, by the sheer power of the literature, in spite of the teacher. Is not this a typical experience? Take a class accustomed to this sham literature lesson, and present literature as interpretation of life, as the idealization of their own lives, as the perfect and idealized picture of man's actions, thoughts and feelings; they are bewildered and astounded. Try to make them see that even they may have the same experiences in miniature, that the author is speaking to them in persuasive terms, and has a real message for their minds, that he is portraying genuine typical characters, who are walking the streets and even sitting in the school, making allowance for the writer's idealism and intensity; teach literature from this standpoint, and you will find that, in many cases, this attitude is unknown.

I like to study poems with my junior classes which have been studied in the Public School, and pick up the lost stitches, such as "Lucy Gray," "We are Seven," "The Burial of Sir John Moore," "After Blenheim." Instead of looking at such as mere stories, or language studies, one can treat them in elementary fashion as life studies, alive with human action, thought and feeling, the experiences of certain men, which are typical in many ways even of a child's life and thought. Of course it would be absurd to expect a

child to get the meaning out of such that an adult would whose mental powers are matured. The more subtle and profound aspects will elude the young mind, but if the selection is well made, there will be certain broad, fundamental ideas which will appeal to young as well as old.

It is a truism that literary appreciation must be based upon personal experience, a selection will have no real meaning to the young mind unless he can corroborate it and interpret it by reference to his own experience. If he has had the essential experience, then he can appreciate how a great mind views the same experience, expands it, analyzes it, idealizes and glorifies it with all the glamor of beautiful imagery and language. Take "Casabianca," one of the simplest of poems; it would have no meaning to the child that has not had any experience of self-sacrifice, obedience to duty, and the resultant glow of courage. What would be the use of placing Browning's "My Last Duchess" before the pupils? It would be almost meaningless, because the mental experiences would, to a great extent, be foreign to the ordinary boy and girl. You might teach the meaning of every word, make the pupils familiar with the story, have them memorize it, repeat your explanations like parrots, and yet their minds might be a blank so far as a true comprehension of the spirit of the poem is concerned, because they are not matured enough to appreciate so subtle an experience. The delicate pathos of Mrs. Humphrey Ward's novels would soar over the heads of the young hopefuls, but the simple, highly-colored sentiment of "To Have and To Hold" would take their minds prisoner. Hence it does not necessarily follow that the pupils are deficient in delicacy, sympathy and intelligence if they do not appreciate keenly some of the higher literature, intensely true and beautiful as it may be; it may mean that they are blind from lack of maturity and experience. We must give the pupils literature that will appeal largely to personal experience as a basis of interpretation. Hence Scott is peculiarly adapted to the needs of the lower forms. He portrays only the simple, apparent mental experiences, passing over subtle and complex conditions of mind, dealing with actions rather than with theories. Even love sentiment is treated in a cursory, matter-of-fact fashion.

Love, in its limited sense, it seems to me, is out of place in the literature of any form below the Third, and even there, it is often too advanced a study. The ideas of pupils, under sixteen at least, concerning love incline very often towards the comic, such as we see

in "Peck's Bad Boy," where irrepressible young brothers play the meanest tricks on their sisters' lovers. Tennyson's "Elaine" was prescribed for Third form literature two years ago. In my opinion, the tenderness, the delicacy, the purity of sentiment in all its ideal beauty were beyond the appreciation even of a Third form, and the general result seemed to be giggling levity or mawkish sentimentality. It is the old reason; the immaturity and inexperience of the pupils prevent them from forming any adequate conception of the ideal passion of Elaine or Portia. Love sentiment, viewed in the light of their own experiences, has a rather absurd tone to them. Again, with regard to those moralizing, philosophizing poems, full of that gentle, melancholy sentiment which is generally so attractive to adults, representing the transient nature of earthly joy, the inevitable fate of all mortals, the indifference of the world, the barren results of ambition, in short, the spirit of the Preacher when he said that all was vanity; these poems do not, as a rule, mean much to those on the threshold of life, whose feet have not yet strayed into the dark places. I have never been able to arouse much interest in the sentiment of the beautiful "Elegy in the Country Churchyard," in the average High School pupil. In general, the literature must be of such a nature as to appeal to the pupil's personal experiences in some eloquent fashion; that is essential if literature is to mean much.

Turning to literary form, I think we too often demand too much knowledge of technical points, too high an appreciation of the fine, æsthetic, artistic effects of poetic devices, when we consider the youth and inexperience of even our Fourth forms. The subtle beauty of a literary masterpiece is to a great extent hidden, which we cannot wonder at, when we remember that High School pupils have not that sensibility to fine poetic charm, which comes from long training, that they cannot comprehend the ingenious devices of the literary art, that they cannot appreciate delicate precision of language. These faculties are developed only after a long serious training in literature, and this fine discrimination is a very gradual growth. For instance, if one reads Keats' "Nightingale," even to a Fourth form, there is but little of that warm admiration shown by an adult of any literary taste. The poetic art is too subtle, the delicate beauty of rhythm and language fails to reach and impress, on account of ignorance and crudity. Whereas Scott's rousing, noisy, rough rhythm and simple art is infinitely more attractive, because it is within reach. For this reason it gave me

great satisfaction when Milton was removed from the course. The beauty and grandeur of his style, his perfect technique, his mastery of language were largely beyond the appreciation of an ordinary Fourth form pupil, and leaving that out of the question, there was not enough life, reality, animation, human feeling, to interest a High School pupil.

In a great many studies the text-books are exactly adapted to the age and mental capacity of the class, and there is no question of selection. But there is no great literature made to order for pupils at different stages. The "Merchant of Venice" may be read with pleasure and benefit by a man of middle age, and it may also furnish instruction and delight to a First or Second form. But the teacher must show his tact, discrimination and judgment in presenting to the young minds what can be digested and assimilated, ignoring aspects which would be hopeless problems to the undeveloped intelligence, though luminous revelations to the ripe intellect. Literature is like other good investments, the more one puts into it, the more one gets out of it.

If the literature is adapted to the understanding of the class, we naturally expect interest, for literature is the representation of life, human character, the world about us, and the normal mind, young or old, is surely concerned in such. This interest is absolutely essential in the literature lesson, and it must be warm, genuine, spontaneous interest, not simply compliant docility, if much is to be accomplished. There are a good many tasks where a certain mechanical interest and industry serve the purpose such as French prose exercises, but in literature there must be the interest that springs from enthusiasm and liking, if the lesson is to be a success. Now, one of the greatest difficulties for the average literature teacher is to get this warm, living, natural interest. One reason of course, is the inability of the pupil to understand the spirit of the selection, it is too difficult and subtle. But, setting this aside, the pupil is often tempted to indifference by the feeling that the literature lesson is a period of rest from his exhausting labors over Latin prose or quadratics. There is a lack of definite procedure, of cut and dried method in the teaching of literature that gives the young mind a chance to wander. In mathematics the pupil has a definite practical task set, which is done or not done. A mathematical master can "size up" his class and their capacity, he can hold his pupils to their exercise, he can whip them into line. But the teaching of literature is necessarily on more broad and general

lines, and its methods are less formal and mechanical, its scope is so boundless that there is no precise answer which is either right or wrong. Hence it is often difficult to make the class realize its vital importance, and rank it equal with the more precise subjects. We can do much to make it more precise and definite by setting formal tasks and exercises on the selections read, by demanding written explanations, memorizing, scanning, paraphrasing and such exercises; but we must be careful not to emphasize these formal, mechanical devices as the *summum bonum*.

Another difficulty which drives the teacher to the verge of despair is the almost hopeless ignorance, narrowness, coarseness of a great portion of the typical High School class, whether junior or senior. No matter how simple the spirit and art of the poem are, they seem never to take the message home to their hearts, they regard a masterpiece with a dull, blank indifference, which almost paralyzes effort. And yet this same insensibility is not altogether incomprehensible. There is no subject in the course where the general tone and spirit of the pupil's life counts so much as in literature. If the child comes of cultured parents, and if its environment is one of refinement and delicacy, if intelligence and good taste are found in the home and surroundings, it is a comparatively easy and pleasant task to teach literature, other things being equal. The mind of such a one seems to seize and appreciate the power and beauty of fine literature almost intuitively, and shows interest accordingly. But consider a pupil, as we have so many, whose home life is characterized by vulgarity, sordidness, ignorance, whose relatives and associates are without culture and refinement, and there seems but slight foundation for building up love and appreciation for fine literature. Of course, as such pupils have the essential human ideas, you may interest them in the fundamental life and action of a great poem, but the beauty, the art, the fine language, the delicacy, the subtle shades of meaning, escape their comprehension. I have already said that the finer ideas, the more æsthetic qualities elude the grasp even of the most appreciative members of the class from lack of years, maturity and training. But in the case of this dull element, even the simple and fundamental aspects of the art, the power, the truth of literature, fail to make the impression we hope for. If in a poem there is a certain very primitive action and stir, that much will appeal to them, such as the contest between Fitz-James and Roderick Dhu; but in the case of Wordsworth's sonnet, "King's College Chapel," at least

three-fourths of the value seems lost, they have no centres cultivated to appreciate the spirit and art of the poem. The very pupil who is a dullard, so far as literary taste goes, may sweep an arithmetic paper. Literary appreciation requires the co-operation of the whole nature—the emotion, the intellect, the imagination; moreover it demands a certain delicacy and refinement, as well as breadth and maturity of mind, whereas any pupil may succeed fairly well in mathematics if he possesses a certain practical shrewdness, a certain narrow logic which, if taken alone, will never give an insight into literature. It is almost pathetic to see earnest minds, whose dulness and coarseness blind them to literary beauty and truth, doing their best to comprehend what is almost a sealed book, memorizing what you may say, but lacking real personal consciousness of the inner power and beauty of the poem. Worse still, when lacking the ability to take the poem to their own minds and hearts, they look at it with careless contempt and regard it as unworthy of real mental effort. It is almost useless to try to make a pupil realize the wonderful power of expression, the delicate shades of discrimination, the subtle appropriateness of figures, the deep underlying truths, when his own language and style are redolent of coarseness and carelessness, and his ideas painfully immature and crude, more so than you would expect, even considering his natural limitations from youth and inexperience. You might as well expect proper appreciation of Chopin's delicate, suggestive music from one whose highest conception of music is "The Maple Leaf Forever." I may be mistaken, but I often think that a great deal of our literature teaching is too fine, too scholarly, even in our Fourth forms. A good deal of it is in the air, far over their heads, and their minds are left in a state of bewilderment which is worse than useless. It would be better to teach the story of "Red Riding Hood," if a clear, thorough comprehension of it be given, than any of our masterpieces, if the result be an idle conglomeration of images and ideas without order and clearness.

Well, the public may say, you have had this same dull pupil, so insensible to the power of literature, under your influence for two or three years, and you ought to have moulded and formed his tastes. But the trouble is that the twig is bent before we get it, and we find it very difficult to incline it as we wish when we get it. The pupil's daily life, associations, employments, pleasures, are forming or marring his capacity for literature, and it seems difficult

in a few lessons to give him what his daily life, thoughts, emotions, tend to destroy. Each little exercise of everyday common-sense develops a pupil's mathematical ability—you might say he is cultivating it all the time; but there is so little in the lives of the majority of our pupils to foster that delicacy, sympathy, which are so essential for understanding good literature and creating a love for it.

One might fancy from this strain that I despaired of cultivating literary taste in a large body of the class whose minds are darkened by coarseness, vulgarity and narrowness of daily life and thought. I certainly confess that it is very difficult in many cases, but by no means impossible. We have them when they are young and plastic to a great extent, and if we are at all optimistic we must believe that there are finer instincts which may be reached by noble literature, if the students will only see that literature is real and living, not shadowy and false.

A vital feature of literary study is emotional activity. Literature of the highest type appeals not only to our intellect, like the fifth proposition of Euclid; it must touch the heart, cause the chords of feeling to vibrate, and stir the sympathy. Our hearts must be attuned to joy or sorrow, love or hatred, fear or courage, according to the tone or spirit of the work. This represents one of the greatest difficulties in the teaching of literature; even if we have the activity of the pupil's intellect, it is not enough; we must have the activity of the emotions, heart as well as brain must do its part, or much of the value of the lesson is lost. To accomplish this, it is essential, in the first place, that the teacher have that emotional susceptibility, that sympathetic interest which takes the emotions portrayed by the poet to his own heart and incorporates them with his own heart life. If he analyzes the poem intellectually merely, without having his emotions excited, roused to some extent by the spirit of the work, he cannot hope that tenderness and sympathy will be stirred in the hearts of his pupils. Emotional activity is very infectious, and if the pupil sees that the teacher is in sympathy with the spirit of the poem, it is likely that he will respond to the feeling, provided he has the essential understanding of the emotion presented to him from some personal experience. Pure intellectual analysis of a literary masterpiece is not enough, as one would analyze a plant or substance. I believe that a teacher who could give a clear, brilliant, perfect analysis of a poem, yet lacking warmth, sympathy, enthusiasm, would have less beneficial effect

upon his class than a man of less intellect and more heart. You cannot impress the class with the reality of poetic sentiment, unless you show that it is real to you, that it touches your own heart, that it inspires you with genuine feeling. And the class can tell, that observant class, whether the literature is a message to your own heart; they can tell by the ring of your voice, by your manner, by your earnestness. There is no choice, you must make the literature speak to the heart of the pupil; it is absolutely necessary, even if you have to accomplish this by the sheer magnetism of your own emotional activity. The message must reach the heart, appeal to some fundamental emotion of joy, sorrow, love, hope, reverence; pity, if it is to have powerful influence. The pupil will never love literature until it does. And, after all, is that not the great aim of the teacher, to make the pupil love literature for its own sake, to make him crave greater and greater intimacy with it, and know it as a faithful and valuable friend, not as a mere bowing acquaintance? Does not that word *love* for good literature sum up all the good results to be desired from the teaching of literature? Needless to say, unless the teacher loves literature, becomes enthusiastic over it, he can never to any extent influence his pupils in that direction. Teaching with this warmth and feeling is not easy, as you know; it takes a great deal out of a teacher, it is exhausting, it causes great nervous strain, but I believe it is indispensable. Mechanical teaching destroys the value of the literature just as mechanical execution takes the meaning out of music.

And yet this emotional stimulation may be carried too far. At one extreme there is the cold mechanical teacher, whose presentation of literature moves the heart, the imagination, the sympathy of the pupil no more than grammatical parsing. At the other, there is the highly emotional teacher who makes undue calls upon the feelings, overstimulates the emotions until morbid sentimentality is the result, hysterical, nervous excitement which is enervating and at the same time very transient, resembling the unwholesome emotions of a camp-meeting. This species of emotion lacks that element of reserve, depth, control, thoughtfulness, if I may say so, which makes emotion beneficial and permanent in the forming of character. After all, if once the emotions of youth are reached, it is easy to over-stimulate them into morbid activity, since there is lacking that developed judgment which saves one from that exaggerated form of feeling, false and worthless, called

sentimentality. For instance, I believe that Tennyson's "May Queen" or Dickens "Old Curiosity Shop" can be treated in such a way as to be revolting to good taste and moderation, and yet again they can be presented so as to develop good, sweet, true sentiment in the young.

Besides broad scholarship and fine delicacy of mind, there is another quality which contributes greatly to a teacher's power in expounding literature, namely, a certain broad, true knowledge of life, a clear understanding of human character, a realization of the mighty forces and laws governing society; in short, it is necessary to be to some extent a man of the world. This knowledge cannot be gained exclusively from books, though it may be confirmed, broadened, organized, corrected by those works based on the great, underlying, universal principles of life. A man must live consciously, study himself, observe those around him, ponder over great social movements, feel the pulse of struggling humanity, before his exposition of great literature can have that ring of truth, that boldness, that power, which give a teacher such influence. It is said of Molière that he would spend hours in a barber's shop watching and studying his fellow-creatures in order to give a true picture of human character in his wonderful plays. We want neither a rose-colored view nor a jaundiced conception of life and the world, we require a true knowledge before we can attempt to teach those masterpieces of literature which are based on reality. A teacher cannot pass judgment on the complex actions, motives, feelings, thoughts of Shakespeare's characters without keen insight into real life and character to serve as a key to the situation. A mere book-worm cannot feel in all its power and fulness the eloquent appeal of the great author, cannot comprehend in all their scope the delineation of character, the analysis of motives, the irony of life, the stern laws of existence. One who lives on monotonously in a narrow sphere, who meets people of the same type and class to a great extent, who shrinks from broadening and enriching his life experience, who neglects studying society in all its complexity and variety, who shrinks from the life of the great world, he cannot get the inner spirit, grasp the full power, realize the full truth of Shakespeare's tragedies, much less teach them. Book knowledge is not sufficient, a man needs to be familiar with the hard facts of life to gather knowledge from that medium which gives our realists such power and truth. Then I think there would be much less of that weak type of literature lesson where a certain namby-pamby,

overdrawn picture of life is given, where a goody-goody false spirit is present. Youth is a keen observer of life within its limits, and there is nothing that disgusts a pupil, especially a boy, more than any sham, exaggerated ideas of life and character presented by teachers whose idealism ignores reality, who prefer to trick life out in fanciful frills and flounces, to conceal plain hard truths, instead of accepting them and looking for the beauty and goodness in them. It is better to accept the real life with all its imperfection and baseness, containing nevertheless elements of beauty and nobility which the great genius heightens and glorifies by creating ideal situations and characters.

I know it is very difficult to show the relation of the *real* to the *ideal*, life to the poetic conception of it. I believe only one that realizes strongly what real life is can carry the mind to appreciate what ideal conditions are. He must show that the true ideal is not the unreal, but only the real perfected, and that the further the ideal departs from the real on which it should rest, the more unreal it becomes. He would show that Portia is an ideal character, but also real and true, for her fundamental qualities of mind and soul are to be found in numbers of true, good women, only these virtues are enhanced and thrown into the strongest light by the genius of Shakespeare. Little Nell, Dickens' creation, is ideal in her goodness and purity, but there are many like her in real life, though they are gems without the polish and setting.

Now it seems to me one of the great sources of the indifference manifested towards literature is that it is considered apart from real life. It is regarded as an unreal, fanciful world in itself, without any kinship with this actual old world which revolves around the sun. The characters are not looked upon as having any vital relation with living persons, but as strange phantoms possessing qualities never found in real life. The whole spirit and tone of literature is considered vitally different from the spirit of this noisy, uneasy, sordid life lived by the average man. Great literature is not any such unreal creation without truth and substance, it is simply life idealized, perfected, ennobled, what it would be under favorable conditions. The noble qualities of character are more highly developed, purified, broadened, glorified, and the little mean, petty faults which disfigure the best of us are largely ignored, so as to present a picture of ideal beauty and excellence. Then situations are inserted in which noble qualities may be displayed to the best advantage, situations which are not

very common perhaps in our humdrum prosaic lives, but which are not unnatural. Elaine's passion is not unreal, though unusual, for death does not often come from unrequited love. Tennyson has her die simply to idealize her passion. Hence a teacher makes a serious mistake if he allows his pupils to regard ideal creations as utterly divorced from reality. And yet the teacher who, to some extent, has observed and studied real life along with ideal life, will not conceal that the characters, the situations, the relations, the thoughts, the moral conceptions, the whole life and spirit of noble, lofty literature of the highest type is not seen in the real world except in a rough, primitive form. He will lead his pupils to see that though the ideal is never fully attained, yet it is the secret of true progress; it is a great, shining light before us, beckoning us nearer and nearer.

*IMPRESSIONS FROM A SUMMER SESSION AT THE
ALLIANCE FRANÇAISE IN PARIS.*

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Every teacher of Modern Languages, in his more inspired moments at least, realizes the necessity of coming in vital contact with the languages and literature which he teaches. The growing teacher realizes more and more that what he needs is not some new and intricate pedagogic method based on a recently discovered psychologic principle, but a more thorough grasp on his part of the matter to be taught. He will acknowledge that when he fails in conducting an oral lesson it is not his method which is at fault, but the ability to express himself with the ease and variety which inspire the confidence and arouse the interest of the class, thus producing a natural interchange of ideas. Too often a French reading and translation lesson degenerates into a mere formal repetition of words and a mechanical process of word substitution. For example, a class reads a scene from "La Poudre aux Yeux," in which the parents of the young couple meet to arrange for their future, the fathers making terms as to the amount of the dowry, and the mothers discussing details as to the equipment of the household. The teacher personally unacquainted with French life and customs, without the sympathetic comprehension of the French temperament which springs from personal contact, viewing this scene from an English standpoint merely, laughs at it in amused contempt, and because he fails to appreciate it as a humorous picture of real French life, he is unable to communicate to his class the real spirit of the play. What teacher propounding to his class such well-worn sentences as, "Qu'est ce que c'est que l'île la cite?" or reading the exploits of M. Perrichon at the Gare de Lyon or the Mer de Glace has not felt the desirability of animating the dry bones of French grammatical composition by personal experience? Perhaps this call from within is all the more readily heard, because of a certain outward pressure which is brought to bear. For has not many an aspirant, to a lucrative position learned that the reason he was not placed first in the recommended list was due to his inability to answer in the affirmative the question, "Have you been abroad?" Just how much or how little to have been abroad may mean is a subject worthy of

consideration. Investigation will often disclose the fact that the teacher who returns in glory from abroad has simply followed the beaten track of the ordinary tourist in breathless pursuit of objective sightseeing instead of striving to get at the heart of what he sees.

It is no easy matter for the average High School teacher in Ontario, with his moderate salary, to obtain time and means for such an experience. The distance is so great that the summer vacation cannot be satisfactorily utilized for that purpose without an extension of time, and this entails an additional financial sacrifice of a few months' salary. The result is that the modern language teachers of Ontario are, as a whole, forced to stay home without any professional stimulus, and thus they miss the great essential, a living contact with the language, without which methods profit nothing. Even the small minority who are capable of assuming the responsibility of additional expense receive no active and positive support. So little alive are those who are in charge of our educational affairs to the fact that the teacher's self-improvement is a good educational investment, reacting as it does on the school and the community, that cases are not unknown where school boards have actually discouraged the teacher's efforts in this direction, seeing in them merely the pursuit of pleasure or a thirst for self-aggrandizement. Now are we as modern language teachers entirely above reproach. We have been slow to avail ourselves individually of the advantages that lie at our doors. What concerted efforts, too, are we making or what encouragement have we given to efforts made in the past towards creating a favorable professional environment?

It is true that Canada up to this time has done little in the way of establishing summer schools for its teachers within easy access and at moderate rates. European countries have done much that is practical towards solving this difficulty for their teachers by creating summer courses in languages in various convenient centres and by giving financial aid through the granting of scholarships. The facilities on the continent for studying the French language are especially numerous, excellent courses of study being open at various French centres through the efforts of the society known as the "Alliance française." This association was organized at Paris in 1884 and was officially recognized by the Education Department in 1886. It held its first summer session in 1894. Since that time branches have sprung up in Bordeaux, Lyon and Grenoble. Sum-

mer courses are given in all these places, those in Paris naturally being most largely attended. In 1902 out of a total attendance in July and August of 566, with 20 countries at least represented, there were 199 Germans, 115 British (including six from Canada) 81 Russians and Poles, and 73 from the United States. The remaining hundred were made up principally of Dutch, Swedes, Swiss, Italians, Austrians, Danes and Spaniards, besides one Armenian, one Mexican and one Cuban. Many of these teachers came on scholarships granted by local school boards and educational councils, who see the value of placing within the reach of their teachers an opportunity of living in France for a time, so that they may obtain not only a grasp of the spoken language but a sympathy for the customs and personality of the French people, so necessary to an adequate appreciation of its literature.

The summer session of 1902 was, perhaps, the most successful from the point of attendance as well as in the variety and excellence of the lectures delivered. The programme was sufficiently varied to meet the needs of almost every individual teacher. There were lessons in pronunciation and oral reading for those who had not yet mastered the elements of pronunciation, a course in scientific phonetics for the more advanced, series of lectures valuable not only from the standpoint of literature and art, past and contemporary, but also excellent practice in training the ear to follow the spoken language. There were various lecturers in each of these departments and the time-table was arranged that the student could follow one series in each. Naturally some lecturers were more popular than others, partly on account of the matter, very often because of the ease with which they could be followed. The lectures of Professor Donmic, of Stanislas College, on Nineteenth Century Literature, were perhaps most largely attended. His keen intellectual face, dramatic gesturing and telling epithet, picturesque and scathing in turn, proved an irresistible attraction for the majority of the students. He is favorably known in France as the author of a number of literary works, prominent among which is his "French Literature," and is not altogether unknown in America, having delivered, I am told, a series of lectures at the University of Chicago. A unique course was that of Professor Thalamas, of the Lycée Condorcet, on "French Institutions." To the average foreigner the Frenchman is typical, in turns, of two opposite political extremes, royalist or revolutionist. Professor Thalamas, however, sees in him the steady, sober scientist who realizes that

society is a process of evolution that must not be unduly hurried by Republican principles nor retarded by conservative ideals. When due allowance is made for the optimism natural in speaking of his native country there remains the residue of truth that France, like England in 1688, has had her revolution, and is now building up the national institutions which make for stability of government.

The lectures on art, ancient and modern, by Prof. Carl are worthy of special mention. Arrangements had been made with the authorities of the various art galleries and public buildings to admit the students of the Alliance on the days when the general public were not admitted. Here the Professor met sections of the students and illustrated his lessons on art—while passing from one painting, piece of sculpture or architecture to another. These lectures were invaluable when visiting those places independently afterwards. This was only one of other privileges secured for the students by the Board of Directors of the Alliance. I have still pleasant recollections of a couple of delightful evenings spent in company with a body of students at the “Comédie française” and the Opéra through the courtesy of the managers, who made it a rule to send daily a certain number of complimentary tickets, which were distributed in turn among the students. In short, I can think of nothing more educative or inspiring for a teacher of French than a session at the Alliance in Paris. Unfortunately this privilege, for the reasons already mentioned, is not within the reach of the great majority of our teachers. But if the best is beyond us, why not grasp the second best, especially when it makes so good a second? Why not utilize the excellent environment which we have at home for mastering both French and German? So prominently has the French-Canadian element entered into Canadian politics and literature that it is quite obvious that we have right in our midst a miniature France, reflecting at least two classes of French society, the peasantry and the bourgeois, modified, it may be, but sufficiently true to serve our purpose. Now, should the facilities for studying the German be ignored. Whole districts of our Province are thickly populated by Germans who, proverbial as they are for good citizenship, yet cling to the speech, customs and ideals of the fatherland thus reflecting quite faithfully middle-class and peasant life in Germany. It is a popular fallacy to suppose that these languages as spoken by the French and German population in Canada have degenerated into mere dialects and differ so much from the standard of France and Germany that they are

practically useless to a teacher of modern languages. Many a teacher who has faithfully spent his summers in Quebec acquiring fluency in the language and an insight into French life can bear witness to the fact that he has been suspiciously cross-questioned on his return as to whether he can teach the Parisian French. This suspicion that his accent has been contaminated by his sojourn in Quebec is often his only tangible reward of his labor and enterprise. Naturally one who has not been abroad and cannot speak at first hand is placed in a somewhat embarrassing position, however firm his convictions may be that the French language, as spoken and taught in the churches, schools and colleges of Quebec is the French language the world over. It should not be forgotten that the churches and colleges, with their clergy and professors in many cases educated in Europe, have been a most powerful factor in preserving the purity of the language and setting a standard for the people. Whatever the Parisians have said last summer with regard to Sir Wilfred Laurier's British sentiments, they at least confessed themselves charmed with the purity and excellence of his French. Any doubts I may have entertained about the French to be acquired in Quebec have been forever silenced by my experience last summer in Paris where the training I received in pronunciation in nowise differed from that I had obtained a number of years before from a French-Canadian clergyman in Quebec; and more, the language spoken in the schools of the German capital was the same familiar German I had heard all my life among the better educated in Western Ontario; and the homely service in the Kaiser Wilhelm Gedächtniss Kirche of Berlin has its exact counterparts in any of the numerous Lutheran churches throughout our country.

Thus reinforced I was able to speak with no uncertain sound when quizzed by my friends on my return as to whether my French and German was understood in Paris and Berlin. It cannot be denied that our communities have local peculiarities of accent, such as distinguish the North of Germany from the South, the Parisian from the citizen of Marseilles or Geneva, or among English, speaking people, the speech of the Canadian from that of the New Yorker or Bostonian, and the south of England from the north. Nor is it denied that there are deficiencies in their spoken language, provincialisms of vocabulary and pronunciation but these are of the same kind as are to be found among certain classes of our nation and can easily be discriminated against by any one who has

a technical grasp of the language. What can be claimed is that in these communities, large enough portion speak sufficiently well so that every teacher desirous of perfecting himself can find material enough to work upon. A few weeks of the vacation spent regularly in a French or German community would enable the teacher to overcome his real difficulty—lack of fluency and ease of expression, the power to understand and make himself understood. So thoroughly convinced am I that I would unhesitatingly encourage every teacher who aims at attaining any degree of perfection in those languages first to lay hold of all that Canada offers, and she offers much.

So much for individual effort. Before closing my paper I would like to suggest that some organized effort be made for our Modern Language teachers in Canada such as has been made in France for foreigners.

Would it not be possible to establish a summer course in the city of Quebec similar to that in Paris which I have just outlined? The environment in Quebec is favorable to obtaining an insight into French life, and personality as reflected in social and business life, in journalism, in the church and University, not forgetting its historic associations. If Canadian teachers are as thoroughly alive as foreigners to the necessity of having a thorough grasp of the languages they teach, they will give any such enterprise their hearty support and not consider it too irksome to spend a few weeks of their holidays in this way. My own enthusiasm in this direction has received a new impetus since observing the teaching of Modern Languages in the secondary schools on the Continent. The greater efficiency in this department, of the schools of Geneva and Berlin is due not to superior methods, but to the teacher's greater mastery of the language. In a country like ours, where there are many able professors and teachers of French, it should not be a difficult matter to secure a sufficient number, of philanthropic spirit, who would not consider it too burdensome to take charge of the various branches, looking for their reward to the improved material which the better trained teachers must of necessity send out to their Universities, and recognizing the privilege of contributing in this way toward the cementing of the British and French races in Canada.

NATURAL SCIENCE SECTION.

*SCIENTIFIC SOCIETIES.**

WILLET G. MILLER, M.A., TORONTO.

I wish to take this, the first opportunity I have had, of thanking the members of the Natural Science section of the Educational Association for the honor they did me last year in electing me honorary president of the section. I may be permitted to say that, after looking over the list of officers of the section for 1902-3, I felt quite at home among them, as I saw that eight out of the nine were old friends of mine. The president and four of the council were students of mine, some at the University of Toronto and others at Queen's, while the vice-president and the secretary-treasurer were fellow-students with me in the laboratories of the University of Toronto before the institution had made the wonderful advance in scientific equipment which the last ten or twelve years have witnessed. I have used the term "wonderful" advisedly, as I think it properly expresses the meaning. In January, 1887, when I first attended lectures in the University, coming in during the middle of my second year and very poorly prepared in the science subjects, the departments were wretchedly housed compared with what they are now. Prof. Ramsay Wright had this room for his lectures in common with the instructors in physics. His museum was in what is now known as the west hall of this building, while his laboratories were in the attic of the then small School of Science building. My fellow students will remember that the heating apparatus of those laboratories was not very scientific. Part of the time there was no heat, then when the hot air did begin to come it was accompanied very frequently by more or less sulphur fumes and other noxious gases. That old School of Science

*Address delivered at joint meeting of the Natural Science and Mathematical and Physical Sections.

building also contained all of the class-rooms of the engineering and applied chemistry faculties, together with those of the arts department of chemistry, and mineralogy and geology. It will thus be seen that the science departments were very much bunched and crowded together, compared with what they are now. Our apparatus was also of a much different character from that at present in use, as regards both quality and quantity. But then I think my fellow students of those days will agree with me that we enjoyed advantages which compensated us as compared with the increased facilities which the students of the present day enjoy. There were only eight or nine of us in the science course, and thus it was possible for the heads of the departments to give each of us more personal attention than they are able to give the individuals making up the large classes of to-day.

The departments of chemistry and biology are now well housed. Mineralogy and geology will soon be provided for. This department has had to wait a very long time for its building and equipment, especially when we consider that its work is so important in the development of the vast latent resources of the Province, and that it is in a position to make more friends for the University, and thus gain for it what is being constantly asked for, more financial assistance, than almost any other department. I hope that in the very near future the department of physics will also have accommodation which is much needed and which will enable it to do much for our manufacturing interests. Many electrical and other problems are waiting to be solved which are of great importance in this Province, which is so richly endowed with water powers, but whose surface was so far above tide during the Carboniferous epoch that it did not get its due supply of coal.

I fear that this reminiscent mood, which has been forced upon me by my being present in a class-room in which I attended lectures fifteen or sixteen years ago and by the presence with us to-day of fellow students and instructors of those times, has caused me to stray from my text, which is Scientific Societies. I think I may be pardoned, however, as the six years which I passed at the University of Toronto as student and fellow, and the nine years during which I was on the science staff of Queen's, were very pleasant, and now that I have taken up other lines of work it is natural that I should be inclined to take frequent retrospective glances.

This reminiscent mood is also, I think, the cause of my choosing

the subject which I have for this address. The names of some of the officers of this Natural Science section and the name of the section itself recall vividly to my mind, if anything is needed to make me recall it, the Natural Science Association of the University of Toronto, which was founded in 1879 and which has played a very important part in scientific education in this University. The secretary-treasurer of this Natural Science section, Mr. E. L. Hill, occupied a similar position during his student days in the University Natural Science Association. From the experience which we have had during several years of his ability in discharging his duties as secretary of this section, it is needless for me to say that the early promise he gave of his fitness for such a position has been amply fulfilled. Then the vice-president of this section was also a prominent member of the University Natural Science Association. As the first lady graduate in the department of natural science she has achieved such success in her chosen line of work that it will be difficult for others of her sex, who also take the science course, to equal it.

The Natural Science Association is, I believe, one of the oldest of its kind among undergraduate societies. Most of us feel, I think I am safe in saying, that we derived as much benefit from it as from any course of lectures we attended. At its meetings we came to know ourselves and our fellow students better in some ways than we could otherwise have done. When a student prepared a paper he was forced to apply his knowledge, more or less, and thus received a training which he did not get to a great extent in preparing for examinations. It is not necessary for me, however, to dwell on the value of such societies to undergraduates. Their worth is now recognized by nearly all universities and few colleges are without such organizations. I may say, however, that the success of our Association in those days was due not only to the interest which the students themselves took in it. The staff gave it much encouragement by attending the meetings and frequently one of their number would fill the office of president. This co-operation of staff and students is necessary to ensure the success of such societies. Most students, like men of larger growth, would never attempt the preparation of papers if they had not some such encouragement as a society affords. I recall many former student members who were induced to make researches and prepare papers through the influence of the society. Many of them, after once learning that they could do this with some degree of

success, have continued the work after graduation, and have added much to the domain of knowledge, which otherwise might have remained unknown. Who can say how many have been turned into students of research by such college associations?

Coming now to scientific societies in general we find that there are various synonyms for the term "society." Among these are academy, association, institute, institution, club, union, guild, league.

The term "learned," as applied to societies, is somewhat wider than that of scientific. Since, however, scientific methods, derived from the study of pure science, are now in use in every branch of knowledge the two terms mean almost the same. Learned societies embrace, in a general way, all those of a scientific character and the latter include most of the former.

When I began the preparation of this paper I thought that literature on the subject was much more abundant and accessible than I have found it to be. There are histories of a few individual societies, but I have been unable to find much dealing with these societies collectively. Most of the encyclopedias have short articles on the subject. In order, however, to give a somewhat full account of the subject one would have to consult a great many books. It was not my object to go into the matter in detail, even had time permitted, in this paper and the following notes are more or less fragmentary and incomplete. Moreover these societies are now so numerous that I have been compelled to confine myself somewhat closely to those of Britain and North America.*

Before dealing with the societies themselves it will be well for us to take a brief glance at the development of science up to the time the earliest of these societies was established. We shall also consider briefly the causes which produced the slow development of science in early ages, at times when literature and art reached as great heights, to say the least, as they have in recent times.

Notwithstanding the numerous and valuable discoveries made in earlier centuries it is only within the last hundred years that science has made such rapid progress. Several discoveries separated by a considerable length of time have acted together to bring about this result. The most important among these is probably the application of steam to machinery. The rapid, or what might

*I am indebted to several writers for matter contained in this paper. As notes have been taken from various books at different times it is not possible for me now, however much I might desire to do so, to give due acknowledgement to each author.

be called sudden, development of science which little more than a lifetime has witnessed, brought about by the accumulation of isolated discoveries scattered through the centuries, may be compared to the action of a head of water on a dam of earth. The water at first trickles through, finding its way along minute cracks and crevices. Gradually enlarging these it at last causes the structure to give way and the flood rushes onward with irresistible force.

It has been pointed out by several writers that there were insuperable drawbacks to the advance of science in antiquity. Among these were the want of mathematics, many branches of this science having been developed in comparatively recent times; want of instruments; slavery deprived the ancient world of the stimulus to industry and made machinery unnecessary; the contempt in which slavery was held deterred free men from entering the industrial and commercial career; the mildness of the climate in which early civilization flourished restricted the necessities of life; preconcerted theories produced another drawback; the discovery of the uses of certain material substances was long delayed; the political economy of the old world was limited to agriculture.

The knowledge of science possessed by the ancients is apt to be overestimated. The discoveries being made in tombs and excavations appeal to our imaginations and tend to lead us to believe that these early peoples were much more advanced along scientific lines than they really were. "It may be said that the ancients knew many things, but they were ignorant of the laws which governed them." To mention one or two examples—their skill in what has been described as the lost art of embalming has been often referred to as showing their knowledge of chemistry. It now appears that the process consisted more in salting than embalming. The climate has also assisted in the preservation of the bodies. Other instances of similar character, showing how their knowledge has been overestimated, can be given. We may be told that they used nickel steel, a very recent discovery with us. If such a report comes out, I shall be inclined to believe it. Many authorities claim that the source of iron in antiquity was meteorites. All meteorites, such as they would use, are nickeliferous. Hence it is quite likely that if any of their iron ornaments or utensils are analyzed they will be found to contain nickel, and a cry may go up that these peoples in the far distant ages possessed a modern knowledge of metallurgy.

We should be thankful, however, that the knowledge which the

ancients possessed was not wholly lost in the centuries of dark and troublesome times which succeeded the scattering of the students of science when the University of Alexandria, founded B.C. 332 and which lasted for about two centuries, was overthrown. One writer, describing how the fires of science were kept burning, uses the following words: "Euclid was the first book translated into the Arabic language. It went into exile with the other sciences of the ancients during the Middle Ages, along with the intellectual activity and goodness of Europe. It was studied, and taught, illustrated and commented upon by the Arab at the University of Bagdad, and on the burning plains of Arabia, by the Nestorian in the sunny city of Cordova, and by the Moor in his Alhambraic palaces. From there it was brought back into semi-barbaric Europe by Jewish peddlers and terrified students, who dared scarcely relate the things which they had learnt among the Moors and Saracens. Translated at length from Arabic into Latin, it passed into the schools of Europe, and thence, after being translated into the various languages of Europe, it was the foundation stone upon which all modern mathematicians based their great discoveries."

And so this knowledge of Euclid, and that of other sciences, was preserved and brought down to modern civilized peoples.

Up to the time of James I. there seems to have been little or no attempt made to bring about co-operation in scientific work. In 1572 the idea of promoting the study of antiquity originated and a meeting of those interested in the subject was held. James I., however, regarded the meetings with apprehension and thought fit to try to put an end to the embryo society. It does not appear, however, to have become extinct, although it ceased to exist publicly for fear of prosecution as a treasonable cabal. After remaining, as it were, in abeyance during the greater part of the seventeenth century, its activities were renewed in 1707, and it received a charter from George II. in 1751, who then declared himself patron and founder. It was given the name of Society of Antiquaries of London.

The second British scientific society, in point of time, of which we have any knowledge was one formed in 1645, and which grew into the Royal Society of London, the first chartered society, in 1660. We are told that clubs for political, theological and sectarian purposes were numerous and active during the stirring years that brought in the Commonwealth. This banding together of men for the pursuit of various objects seems to have influenced the organization of the scientific society or club in 1645.

From 1660 to 1707 the Royal Society was the only chartered one of the kind in English-speaking countries. The Royal Society of Paris was, however, founded in 1665.

The first scientific organization in the United States resulted from a proposal by Benjamin Franklin in 1743 for promoting useful knowledge among the British plantations. In the following year the American Philosophical Society was founded at Philadelphia. This society is still in vigorous life.

The development of societies in Britain can be seen from the periods of incorporation of some of the more important of them. The Royal Society of Dublin was founded in 1750, and the Royal Society of Edinburgh in 1783. Then we find that the work of the general societies began to be divided, a society, the Linnean, for the promotion of zoology and botany, dates from 1788. As early as 1754 a society for the encouragement of arts, commerce and manufactures, commonly called the Society of Arts, was founded. The work which it took up was too wide, and there are now many other societies covering portions of the same ground.

The Nineteenth Century witnessed the promotion of innumerable societies. In Great Britain and Ireland, at the close of the century, there were approximately the following number—those dealing with science in general, such as the Royal Society, 70; chemistry and photography, 9, together with numerous camera clubs; mathematics and physics, 14; biology and related subjects, 83; geology, etc., 21; economic science and statistics, 22; archæology, 58; besides many dealing with mining, mechanical science, etc., or a total of about 525, not counting numerous local clubs and associations.

In 1822, owing chiefly to Humboldt's influence, the Society of German Naturalists and Physicians met in Berlin. This inauguration of a system of national congresses was followed in 1831 by the formation of a similar society in Britain, the British Association for the Advancement of Science, now probably the most popular and influential of all British societies. This association has served as the model for similar societies in France, the United States, Russia, Italy, and in other countries. The American Association for the Advancement of Science was founded in 1847, that of France in 1871.

Then, from these congresses of science which gathered workers of one country together, have been evolved international meetings such as those held every two years or so by the World's Congress of Geologists.

The work which many societies perform is of a varied character. The social side of their work is of no little importance. Bringing together men of similar tastes, they tend to keep down the sometimes bitter spirit of controversy by throwing those who are working along the same lines together and encouraging friendly relations among them. That this is important will be admitted by all who remember some of the very bitter discussions which have taken place over certain subjects, *e.g.*, the questionable discovery of man's remains in pre-Glacial deposits. The publication and interchange of scientific papers is promoted. Libraries which were established by the old societies, when libraries were much less common than they are now, contain many books and sets of periodicals not now in the market. The valuable collection of periodicals made by the Canadian Institute of Toronto during the last fifty years well illustrates the importance of this work. Many museums have also been founded by societies. The work of international congresses of science, to which I have referred, has considerable political importance, in that they bring prominent men of different countries together and thus promote, in a considerable measure, a better understanding among the nations of the earth—many men of science in Britain and other nations have taken a prominent part in the government of their countries.

The importance of the work that is being done at the present time by scientific societies will be made plain if we consider a few examples.

That the Royal Society of London, the oldest and the most dignified among those of the English-speaking peoples, has played a great part not only in pure science but also in applied, and in commerce and industry, will be evident from a brief review of what it has accomplished. Volumes of its proceedings and transactions have been published for over two centuries and a quarter; it has published a catalogue of scientific papers, from 1800 down; promoted the publication of Newton's "Principia" and other special treatises; loaned instruments to Greenwich Observatory in the early days of that institution; it became through force of circumstances the adviser of the government on scientific subjects; Cook's celebrated voyage to observe the transit of Venus was undertaken at the instance of the Society, and from the voyage of the *Endeavour* down to that of the *Challenger* it would be difficult to name a British scientific expedition which has not been equipped under the advice of the Society; it assists in naming the British meteorolo-

logical council, and performs much other work of a public character.

The work of the British Association is probably at the present time the most far-reaching of that of all societies in the English speaking world. This is owing largely, not only to its undertaking an immense amount of work dealing with pure and applied science annually, but to the fact that it moves about and holds its annual meeting in different cities. It has even crossed the Atlantic and held one meeting in Montreal in 1884, and another in Toronto in 1897. The meeting of 1905 is to be held in South Africa. This Association interests all classes in its work and thus gains support, for the advancement of science, from the highest to the lowest, from the most influential legislators to the humblest citizens. Its work is organized under twelve headings, each representing a department of science. It makes grants of money and gives other assistance to individuals and committees in connection with various researches and observations. In 1900 I find that thirty-nine such grants of money were made, ranging from ten or fifteen dollars up to five hundred, and twenty committees were at work under the direction of the Association without receiving financial assistance.

In North America societies are doing similar work. Among technical societies I might mention the American Institute of Mining Engineers. Like the British Association and other modern societies, the institute is itinerating. Its two yearly meetings are held in different cities of the United States; three or four have been held in Canada and one in Mexico. The great advantage of this is that the members have the opportunity of examining various mines and metallurgical works in many widely separated parts of the continent under exceptionally favorable conditions. Mines and works are thrown open for their inspection to which it is difficult often for an individual to gain access. Governments and railway companies lend much assistance. The members travel by a special train, consisting of sleeping, dining and baggage cars, and thus feel at home wherever they find themselves. During the coming summer this Institute will visit British Columbia and if sufficient encouragement is received a steamer will be chartered to proceed up the coast on the way to the Yukon. As further illustrating the advantages to be derived from membership in some of these itinerating societies I might mention that two or three years ago, when the International Congress of Geologists met in Russia,

they travelled through a part of that country at the expense of and under the auspices of the government. The work performed by some of the Canadian societies is too well known to need to be reviewed. Our Royal Society, Canadian Institute, Canadian Society of Civil Engineers, Canadian Mining Institute and others, have all achieved results which speak for themselves.

Having shown some of the benefits to be derived from membership in a scientific society it may be well to add a few notes on the cost of being a member. In this connection it may be stated that societies fall into two groups, chartered and unchartered. The fees of the former are usually heavier than those of the latter. In addition to the benefits derived from attendance at meetings and taking part in excursions, the members of most societies receive one or more volumes of proceedings or transactions during the year which the society publishes and distributes.

The annual fees of a few societies are approximately as follows: Royal Society of London, \$15; British Association, \$5, entrance fee, \$5, life membership, \$50; Royal Society of Canada, \$2, life membership, \$20; Canadian Institute, Toronto, \$5; Canadian Mining Institute, \$10; American Association, \$5; American Institute of Mining Engineers, \$10, life membership, \$100.

The Royal Society of London has over 450 fellows and 50 foreign members; only 15 members are elected annually to this society. The British Association has approximately 3,000. The Society of Chemical Industry has about 3,800 members in different parts of the British Empire. The American Institute of Mining Engineers has over 3,500 members. The two last mentioned societies have the largest number of permanent members, those of the British Association and the corresponding society in the United States changing from year to year.

A comparatively small number of societies submit the candidates for membership to severe tests, while in others again membership is open to almost any person who desires to avail himself of the privilege.

I desire now to show the advance which has been made in science since the first of these societies was founded. This cannot be better done than by referring to the early work of the Royal Society. Fortunately a rather full history was published of the society only seven years after it had been established. Instead therefore of using my own words I shall give you some quotations

from this rare old book. A later history of the society, published in 1848, will also be drawn on.

The Royal Society of London, as we have seen, was founded in 1660, the year Charles II. came to the throne. With one or two exceptions this was the first learned society to be established.* Its history is by far the most interesting of all societies, and, as we have shown, the work which it has accomplished, not only in the domain of pure science but also in connection with the development of commerce and industry, is very important and far reaching.

Considering the state of affairs at the period in which it was established, we can hardly understand how it received so much attention and support from the very beginning.

It is not necessary to dwell on the unsettled state of the country in the period immediately preceding the Restoration. One would think that the time would not have been ripe for philosophical contemplation or the quiet study of science. And yet judging from what we are told of the early years of the Royal Society, scientific pursuits seem to have been entered upon with more enthusiasm and to have received more encouragement from the highest in the land than during probably any succeeding period. People in those days seem not to have been able to undertake anything in a half-hearted way. They were determined not only to overcome their enemies by all means in their power, but having overcome them they were not satisfied until they had exterminated them. The men of science at that time seem to have been imbued with the same spirit. They were not satisfied to examine into and experiment on things near at hand, but they essayed to determine the explanation of all the phenomena of nature. They sent questions concerning various phenomena to all the accessible parts of the world.

In 1667, or seven years after the founding of the Royal Society, Thomas Sprat, afterwards Bishop of Rochester, published a history of the society. From it we are led to believe that Charles II. has scarcely, to say the least, received justice at the hands of later historians. His Majesty, judging from Sprat's statements, appears to have been a firm friend of science and to have done more for its

*The natural Academy of Naples, created by Porta in 1560. The Lyncean Academy of Rome, created by Prince Cesi in 1603, soon followed by the creation of the Accademia del Cimento at Florence, 1637.

advancement, and through this for the development of commerce and industry, than any of the emperors or kings who preceded him during six thousand years or more. Few, if any, of his successors in any land have the same claim to be called the patrons of science.

That His Majesty and his subjects might have been excused if they had turned deaf ears to the appeals of learning will be admitted when we recall some of the great and soul-stirring events that took place between the time of the founding of the society in 1660 and 1667, when Sprat's history was published. In addition to dealing with the so-called regicides, various complex political questions had to be settled, troublesome theological questions had to be handled, the Great Plague of 1665 depopulated a large part of London, and was followed by the Great Fire, the Dutch war broke out in 1666, and in 1667, the year that Sprat's history was going through the press, Dutch ships entered the Thames and presented Englishmen with a sight such as they have never seen since, or as a gentleman of the time expressed it, "a dreadful spectacle as ever Englishman saw, and a dishonour never to be wiped off." The pioneers in science appear, however, to have had good nerves and to have calmly pursued their experiments and investigations in spite of all the political turmoil, death and destruction round about them.

A better understanding will, however, be derived by the following extracts from Sprat's quaint history of the state of science at that time, the work that was accomplished and especially the view which was held, by at least one of his contemporaries, of the Merry Monarch as a patron of science and commerce. Some would probably claim that Sprat was a prejudiced adherent of the House of Stuart. However that may be, it seems to me that the evidence he gives of the great amount of scientific work accomplished by the members of the society cannot be gainsaid, and proves it to have been a period extraordinarily active in investigation and research. From a literary point of view Sprat was well fitted for the work, as is evident from Lord Macaulay's statement that "he was, indeed, a great master of our language, and possessed at once the eloquence of the orator, of the controversialist and of the historian."

The dedication or "Epistle Dedicatory," as it is called, is worth quoting. It is as follows :

“TO THE

“KING.

“Sir,

“Of all the Kings of Europe, Your Majesty was the first who confirm'd this Noble Design of Experiments, by Your own Example, and by a Public Establishment. An Enterprize equal to the most renoun'd Actions of the best Princes. For, to increase the Powers of all Mankind, and to free them from the bondage of Errors, is greater Glory than to enlarge Empire, or to put Chains on the necks of Conquer'd Nations.

“What Reverence all Antiquity had for the Authors of Natural Discoveries, is evident by the Diviner sort of Honor they conferr'd on them. Their Founders of Philosophical Opinions were only admir'd by their own Sects. Their Valiant Men and Generals did seldome rise higher than to DemyGods and Heros. But the Gods they Worshipp'd with Temples and Altars, were those who instructed the world to Plow, to Sow, to Plant, to Spin, to build Houses, and to find out New Countries. This zeal indeed, by which they express'd their Gratitude to such Benefactors, degenerated into Superstition: yet has it taught us, That a Higher degree of Reputation is due to Discoverers, than to the Teachers of Speculative Doctrines, nay even to Conquerers themselves.

“Nor has the True God himself omitted to shew his value of Vulgar Arts. In the whole History of the first Monarchs of the World, from Adam to Noah, there is no mention of their Wars, or their Victories: All that is Recorded is this. They liv'd so many years, and taught their Posterity to keep Sheep, to till the Ground, to plant Vineyards, to dwell in Tents, to build Cities, to play on the Harp and Organs, and to work in Brass and Iron. And if they deserv'd Sacred Remembrance, for one Natural or Mechanical Invention, Your Majesty will certainly obtain Immortal Fame, for having establish'd a perpetual Succession of Inventors.

“I am

(May it please Your Majesty)

“Your Majesties most humble,

“and most obedient

“Subject, and Servant,

“THO. SPRAT.”

Sprat described in the following words how the King received the articles for the regulation of the Society's proceedings which had been drawn up and in what way he furthered its interests.

"When these *Statutes* were presented to His *Majesty*, he was pleased to superscribe himself, their *Founder*, and *Patron*, his *Royal Highness*, and his *Highness Prince Rupert*, at the same time, declaring themselves *Fellows*.

"Nor has the *King* only encourag'd them by kindness of *words*, and by *Acts of State*: but he has also provok'd them to unwearied activity in their *Experiments*, by the most effectual means of his *Royal Example*. There is scarce any one sort of *work*, whose advancement they regard, but from His *Majesties* own labours, they have receiv'd a *pattern* for their indeavours about it. They design the multiplying, and beautifying of *Mechanick Arts*: And the noise of *Mechanic Instruments* is heard in *Whitehall* it self. They intend the perfection of *Graving*, *Statuary*, *Limning*, *Coining*, and all the work of Smiths, in Iron, or Steel, or Silver: and the most excellent *Artists* of these kinds have provision made for their practice, even in the Chambers, and Galleries of his *Court*. They purpose the trial of all manner of *operations by fire*: and the *King* has under his own roof found place for *Chymical Operators*. They resolve to restore, to enlarge, to examine *Physick*: And the *King* has endow'd the Colledge of *London* with new Priviledges, and has planted a Physick Garden under his own eye. They have bestow'd consideration, on the *propagating of Fruits and Trees*; And the *King* has made *Plantations* enough, even almost to repair the ruins of a Civil War. They have begun an exact *Survey of the Heavens*: and *Saint Jameses Park* may witness, that *Ptolomey* and *Alphonso* were not the only *Monarchs*, who observ'd the motions, and appearances of the *Stars*. They have studied the promoting of *Architecture* in our Island: and the beauty of our late *Buildings*, and the reformation of his own Houses, do sufficiently manifest his Skill and Inclination to that *Art*: of which magnificence, we had seen more effects ere this, if he had not been call'd off by this War, from houses of *convenience*, to those of *strength*. They have principally consulted the advancement of *Navigation*: And the *King* has been most ready to reward those, that shall discover the *Meridian*. They have employ'd much time in examining the *Fabrick of Ships*, the forms of their *Sails*, the shapes of their *Keels*, the sorts of *Timber*, the planting of *Firr*, the bettering of *Pitch*, and *Tarr*, and *Tackling*. And in all *Maritime* affairs of this

Nature, his *Majesty* is acknowledg'd to be the best *Judge* amongst Seamen, and Shipwrights, as well as the most powerful among *Princes*."

The historian seems to fully justify his claim that the King was indeed something more than a nominal patron of the Society.

The way in which the work of the Society was carried on is thus described :

"Their manner of gathering, and dispersing *Queries* is this. First they require some of their particular Fellows, to examine all Treatises, and Descriptions, of the Natural, and Artificial productions of those Countries, in which they would be inform'd. At the same time, they employ others to discourse with the Seamen, Travellers, Tradesmen, and Merchants, who are likely to give them the best light. Out of this united Intelligence from Men and Books, they compose a Body of Questions, concerning all the observable things of those places. These Papers being produc'd in their weekly Assemblies, are augmented, or contracted, as they see occasion. And then the Fellows themselves are wont to undertake their distribution into all Quarters, according as they have the convenience of correspondence; of this kind I will here reckon up some of the Principal, whose Particular heads are free to all, that shall desire Copies of them for their Direction.

"They have composed Queries, and Directions, what things are needful to be observ'd, in order to the making of a Natural History in general: what are to be taken notice of towards a perfect History of the Air, and Atmosphere, and Weather: what is to be observ'd in the production, growth, advancing or transforming of Vegetables: what particulars are requisite, for collecting a compleat History of the Agriculture, which is us'd in several parts of this Nation.

"They have prescrib'd axact Inquiries, and given punctual Advice for the tryal of Experiments of rarefaction, refraction and condensation: concerning the cause, and manner of the Petrification of Wood: of the Loadstone: of the Parts of Anatomy, that are yet imperfect: of Injections into the Blood of Animals: and Transfusing the blood of one Animal into another: of Current: of the ebbing and flowing of the Sea: of the kinds, and manner of the feeding of Oysters: of the Wonders and Curiosities observable in deep Mines.

"They have Collected, and sent abroad Inquiries for the *East Indies*, for *China*, for *St. Helena*, for *Tenariff*, or any high Mountain,

for *Ginny*, for *Barbary*, and *Morocco*, for *Spain*, and *Portugal*, *Turky*, for *France*, for *Italy*, for *Germany*, for *Hungary*, for *Transylvania*, *Poland*, and *Suedan*, for *Iceland*, and *Greenland*. They have given Directions for Seamen in General, and for observing the Eclipses of the Moon; for observing the Eclipses of the Sun by *Mercury*, in several parts of the World, and for observing the *Satellites* of *Jupiter*.

“Of this their way of Inquiring and giving Rules for direction, I will here produce a few instances: from whose exactness it may be guess’d how all the rest are perform’d.”

The kind of queries they sent abroad may be judged from the following selected from thirty-three questions sent to a gentleman in Java. From the character of the questions one is led to believe that sailors’ yarns were then listened to with much more readiness than in our own day.

“ANSWERS

RETURN’D BY

Sir *PHILIBERTO VERNATTI*

Resident in *Batavia* in *Java Major*,

To certain Inquiries sent thither by Order of the *Royal*

Society, and recommended by

Sir *ROBERT MORAY*.”

“Q. 1. *Whether Diamonds and other Precious Stones grow again after three or four years, in the same places where they have been digged out?*

“A. Never, or at least as the memory of man can attain to.

“Q. 2. *Whether the Quarries of Stone in India, neer Fetipoca, not far from Agra, may be cleft like Logs, and sawn like Planks, to ceil Chambers, and cover Houses?*

“A. What they are about the Place mentioned, I have not as yet been well informed; but in *Persia* not far from *Cyrus* where the best Wine groweth there is a sort of hard Stone which may be cleft like Firrwood, as if it had a grain in it; the same as at the Coast *Cormandel* about *Sadraspatuam*; where they make but a mark in the Stone, set a wedge upon it, with a wooden hammer, as thick and thin as they please; it is used commonly for pavement in houses, one foot square, and so cheap, that such a stone finely polish’d costs not above six pence.

“Q. 3. *Whether there be a Hill in Sumatra which burneth continually, and a Fountain which runneth pure Balsom?*

“Q. 4. *What River is that in Java Major that turns Wood into Stone?*

“Q. 5. *Whether it be true, that upon the Coast of Achin in Sumatra, the Sea, though it be calm, groweth very high when no rain falls, but is smooth in rain, though it blows hard?*

“Q. 7. *Whether those Creatures that are in these parts plump and in season at the full Moon, are lean and out of season at the New, find the contrary at the East-Indies?*

“A. I find it so here, by Experience at *Batavia*, in Oysters and Crabs.

“Q. 9. *Whether the Indians can so prepare that stupefying Herb Datura, that they make it lye several dayes, months, years, according as they will have it, in a man's body, without doing him any hurt, and at the end kill him, without missing half an hour's time?*

“A. The *China* men in this place, have formerly used *Datura* as a Fermentation, to a sort of Drink much beloved by the Souldiers and Mariners, called *Suykerbier*, which makes them raging mad, so that it is forbidden strictly under the penalty of a great pain to make use of the same.

“Q. 10. *Whether those that be stupified by the juyce of this Herb Datura, are recovered by moystning the soles of their feet in fair water?*

“A. No. For I have seen divers Souldiers and Mariners fall into the Rivers and Ditches, being stupified by their drink aforesaid, who were rather worse after they were taken out, than better.

“Q. 17. *Whether in Pegu and other places in the East-Indies, they use a Poyson that kills by smelling, and yet the poyson smell is hardly perceived?*

“Q. 18. *Whether Camphire comes from Trees? What kind of Trees they are in Borneo, that are said to yield much excellent Camphire, so that one pound thereof is said to be worth an hundred of that of China and other places?*

“Q. 23. *If the best Ambergreece be found in the Islands Socotora and Aniana neer Java? To endeavor the getting of more certain knowledge; what it is, being reported to be bred in the bottom of the Sea like to a thick mud?*

“Q. 24. *To enquire of the Divers for Pearls staying long under*

water ; whether they do it by the assistance of anything they carry with them, or by long and often use get a trick of holding their breath so long, at the Isle of Baharan neer Ormus ?

“ Q. 25. *Whether Cinnamon when first gathered hath no tast at all, but acquires its taste and strength by fifteen days sunning ? And whether the Bark be gathered every two years in the Isle of Ceylon ?*

“ Q. 26. *To learn, if it may be, what Art the Master-workmen of Pegu, have to add to the colour of their Rubies ?*

“ Q. 27. *To inquire after, and get, if possible, some of the Bones of the Fish called Caballa, which are so powerful in stopping blood.*

“ Q. 28. *Whether at Hermita, a Town in Ethiopia, there are Tortoises, so big, that Men may ride upon them ?*

“ Q. 30. *Whether about Java, there be Oysters of that vast bigness, as to weigh three hundred weight ?*”

After answering most of the thirty-three questions Vernatti ends his communication to the Society by the following words which show that he was satisfied with nothing short of the truth.

“ The rest of the *queries* are not answered, because the time is short since I received them, and especially, because I cannot meet with any one that can satisfy me, and being unsatisfied myself, I cannot nor will obtrude anything upon you, which may hereafter prove fabulous ; but shall still serve you with truth.”

While some of the foregoing questions may seem somewhat ridiculous, still we learn from Sprat that much important work was done. In his book of 438 octavo pages he reprints several papers which had been published by fellows of the Society. Among these may be mentioned the following : “ A Method of Making a History of the Weather, by Mr. Hook ” ; “ Directions for the Observations of the Eclipse of the Moon, by Mr. Rooke ” ; “ A Proposal for Making Wine, by Dr. Goddard ” ; “ A Relation of the Pico Teneriffe, Received from some Considerable Merchants and Men Worthy of Credit, who went to the top of it.”

Our author mentions a long list of other experiments and researches that had been undertaken by members of the Society. One cannot but admire the diligence and enthusiasm which they must have possessed to accomplish so much in six years. These experiments are classed under eleven headings, and embrace the following subjects—“ fire and flame,” “ nature, properties and uses of air ;” “ properties of water ;” “ mines, metals, ores,” “ growth of vegetables in several kinds of water ;” “ experiments medicinal

and anatomical"; "about those which are called sensible qualities, as of freezing," etc.; "of rarity, gravity, pressure, levity, fluidity, firmness, congruity, etc.;" "light, sound, colors, taste, smell;" "experiments of motion;" "experiments chymical, mechanical, optical." The author then reproduces some of the papers that had been published on the results of these experiments. He also adds an account of the observations "which differ but in name from the other (experiments), the same fidelity, and truth being regarded in collecting them both." These include astronomical observations, "observations on frozen beer"; "on the liming of the ground;" "on the bills of mortality," etc. A list of considerable length of scientific instruments invented by the members is given. He also points out it is the intention to establish a museum and that a committee was appointed for reviewing books.

"It will not I hope be expected, that I should present my *Reader* an *Index* of all the several *Writings* by the *Members* of the *Royal Society*. I shall omit those, which either were printed before the beginning of this *Institution*, or which treat of matters that have no relation to their *Design*. Only I will say in general, that there is scarce any *Art*, or *Argument*, which has ever been the subject of human *Wit*, of which I might not produce instances, that some *Fellows* of this *Society* have given good proofs of their labours in it." The writer also explains why the account of the works of the Society had not appeared at an earlier date, "this book had sooner seen the light if part of it had not perished in the fire."

Looking to the extension of knowledge, the author gives us an interesting glimpse of what was expected to be accomplished as regards America.

"And as for the new-discover'd *America*: 'Tis true that has not bin altogether useless to the *Mechanic Arts*. But still we may guess that much more of its bounty is to come, if we consider that it has not yet been shown above *Two hundred years*, which is scarce enough time to travel it over, describe and measure it, much less to pierce into all its secrets. Besides this, a good part of this space was spent in the *Conquest* and *settling* the *Spanish Government*, which is a season improper for *Philosophical discoveries*. To this may be added, that the chief design of the *Spaniards* thither, has bin the transportation of *Bullion*; which, being so profitable, they may well be thought to have overseen many other of its *Native Riches*. But above all let us reflect on the temper of

the *Spaniards* themselves. They suffer no strangers to arrive there; they permit not the *Natives* to know more than becomes their slaves. And how unfit the *Spanish* humor is to improve *Manufactures* in a country so distant as the *West-Indies*; we may learn by their practice in *Spain* itself, where they commonly disdain to exercise any *Manual Crafts* and permit the profit of them to be carried away by strangers.

"From all this we may make this *Conclusion*, that if ever that vast tract of *Ground* shall come to be more familiar to *Europe*, either by a *free Trade* or by *Conquest*, or by any other *Revolution* in its civil affairs, *America* will appear quite a new thing to us, and may furnish us with an abundance of *rarities*, both natural and artificial, of which we have been almost as much deprived by its present masters as if it had still remained a part of the *unknown world*."

Sprat's book, read in the light of present knowledge, is well worth perusal by all interested in science. His closing words are:

"While the old *philosophy* could only at the best pretend to the portion of *Nephthali* to give goodly words, the new will have the Blessings of *Joseph* the younger and the belov'd son: *It shall be like a fruitful Bough, even a fruitful Bough by a Well, whose Branches run over the wall; it shall have the blessings of Heaven above, the blessings of the deep that lies under.* . . . While the Old could only bestow on us some barren Terms and Notions, the New shall impart to us the uses of all the *Creatures*, and shall enrich us with all the Benefits of *Fruitfulness* and *Plenty*."

Another history of the Royal Society was published in 1848. As it is long out of print I shall take the liberty of giving you some quotations from it or rather from a review of it.

Referring to the beliefs that had been held and some of which were still held at the time the Royal Society was founded, it is stated: *

"The superstitions which at this time degraded England were of the most extraordinary kind. Even Bacon believed in the existence of witches and enchanters, as the agents of the devil. James VI., of Scotland, complained of the number of witches that infested the

* *North British Review*, Vol. XX., 1854, pages 209 to 247. Review of "A History of the Royal Society," with Memoirs of the Presidents, compiled from authentic documents. By Charles Richard Weld, Esq., Barrister-at-Law, Assistant Secretary and Librarian of the Royal Society. Two vols., Svo. London, 1848. Pp. 1840.

country, and maintained the necessity of severely punishing them. During the civil wars no fewer than eighty persons were executed in Suffolk for witch-craft in a little village near Berwick, where the entire population consisted of only fourteen families. It is stated by Hutchinson that there were but two witches executed in England after the Royal Society published their transactions; and Sir Walter Scott has given it as his opinion, that the establishment of the Royal Society tended greatly to destroy the belief in witch-craft and superstition generally. The belief in sympathetic cures was another of the superstitions of the day which the prevalence of experiment and science could not fail to dispel. Bacon was not only a believer in such cures, but had himself experienced the benefit of them. 'The taking away of warts,' says he, 'by rubbing them with somewhat that afterwards is put to waste and consumed, is a common experiment, and I do apprehend it the rather because of mine own experience. I had from my childhood a wart upon one of my fingers; afterwards, when I was about sixteen years old, being then at Paris, there grew upon both my hands a number of warts (at least one hundred) in a month's space. The English Ambassador's lady, who was a woman far from superstition, told me one day she would help me away with my warts; whereupon she got a piece of lard with the skin on, and rubbed the warts all over with the fat side, and amongst the rest that wart which I had had from my childhood; then she nailed the piece of lard, with the face towards the sun, upon a part of the chamber window which was to the south. The success was, that within five weeks space, all the warts went quite away, and that wart which I had so long endured for company. But at the rest I did little marvel, because they came in a short time, and might go away in a short time again; but the going away of that which had stayed so long doth yet stick with me. They say the like is done with a green elder stick, and then burying the stick to rot in muck.'

"Another of the absurd superstitions of the seventeenth century was the belief that scrofula, the king's evil, could be cured by the royal touch—a belief which prevailed from a very early period till the time of Queen Anne, when Dr. Johnson was touched by her Majesty in 1712. Collier tells us that Edward the Confessor was the first sovereign that cured this disease, and that the power 'descended as a hereditary miracle upon all his successors.' 'To dispute the matter of fact,' adds this ecclesiastical historian, 'is to

go to the excess of scepticism, to deny our senses, and to be incredulous even to ridiculousness.' Evelyn (*Diary*, Vol. I., p. 312) has preserved a very interesting account of the ceremony of the royal touch, when Charles II. applied it on the 6th July, 1660: 'His Majesty sitting under his state in the banqueting-house, the surgeons cause the sick to be brought or led up to the throne, where, they kneeling, the King strokes their faces or cheeks with both his hands at once, at which instant a chaplain in his formalities says, "He put his hands upon them, and he healed them." This is said to every one in particular. When they have been all touched they come up again in the same order, and the other chaplain kneeling, and having angel gold (pieces of money having the figure of an angel) strung on white ribbon on his arm, delivers them one by one to His Majesty, who puts them about the necks of the touched as they pass, whilst the first chaplain repeats, "That is the true light who came into the world." Then follows an epistle (as at first a gospel) with the liturgy, prayers for the sick, with some alteration; lastly, the blessing; then the Lord Chamberlain and Comptroller of the Household bring a basin, ewer and towel, for His Majesty to wash.'

"A person of the name of Arise Evans, 'who had a fungous nose,' said it was revealed to him that the King's hand would cure him, and at the first coming of King Charles II., in St. James Park, he kissed the King's hand, and rubbed his nose with it, which disturbed the King, but cured him.

"Although the royal physician had a prescriptive right to the faculty of curing fungous noses and analogous complaints, he was not allowed to enjoy the monopoly. Valentine Greatrix, the Stroker, possessed the power of curing the evil even when the king failed. Robert Boyle believed in the efficacy of Greatrix's touch, and the celebrated astronomer Flamsteed, not only believed that the healing power of Greatrix 'was a gift given him by God,' but he himself had been sent by his father in Ireland, in 1663, when only nineteen years old, to be cured of severe pains in his knees and joints, with which he had been afflicted. Flamsteed's account of his journey from Derby to Cappoquin in Ireland, where Greatrix lived, is exceedingly interesting; he describes Greatrix as having 'a kind of majestical yet affable presence, a lusty body, and a composed carriage.' He was at first touched on his legs, but found not his disease to stir. Next day he was stroked by him all over his body, 'but found as yet no amends in anything but what I had be-

fore I came to Cappoquin.' Flamsteed, however, 'saw him touch several, some whereof were nearly cured, others on the mending hand, and some on whom his strokes had no effect—of whom (he adds) I might have said more, but that he hath been since in England, and so both his person, cures and carriage, are well enough known amongst us. And though some seem to asperse him each way—for my part I think his gift was of God—and for the cause of his cures I dare fully acquiesce with what Dr. Stubbs hath written of him. For though I am an eye-witness of several of his cures, yet am not able to remember or write them out as I saw them.'*

"Such were a few of the superstitions which prevailed at the time of the establishment of the Royal Society; superstitions not confined to the low and ignorant classes of society, but credited by distinguished men, and by many of the Fellows of the Royal Society themselves. The efficacy of the divining-rod in discovering metals and water, the cosmetic virtues of May-dew collected before sunrise, the efficacy of medicines strangely compounded, and even alchemy, or the transmutation of the baser metals into gold, were among the articles of faith of many members of the Royal Society. Hence we obtain an explanation of the absurd and ridiculous experiments which were tried by that learned body, not, as Mr. Weld would have us believe, because they wished 'to clear away a rotten foundation ere a solid superstructure could be raised,' but because they wished farther to investigate what they believed to be true. Nor is this any slur upon the Society. To believe without the desire of investigating is the characteristic of a fool: to believe and to test our faith is an act of wisdom—the belief is the motive, and without a certain portion of it there would be no investigation.

"In the year 1663 the King granted a second Charter to the Royal Society, in which he constituted himself its patron and founder, gave it armorial bearings, and presented it with a mace of richly gilt silver, weighing 149 ounces, avoirdupois. This mace, without which no legal meeting of the Society can be held, had for a long time been regarded with a peculiar interest, owing to the prevalent belief that it was the identical mace turned out of the

* An Account of the Rev. John Flamsteed, etc. By Francis Bailey, Esq. Autobiography, p. 16. Greatrix refused to take money from Flamsteed, not even for his horse's grass.

House of Commons by Oliver Cromwell. Numberless visitors came to the apartments of the Royal Society to see the famous 'Bauble,' and so general and firm was the conviction of the identity of the two maces, that the proprietors of the Abbotsford edition of the Waverley Novels have actually illustrated the novel of 'Woodstock' with an engraving of the 'Bauble Mace,' as formerly belonging to the Long Parliament, and now in the possession of the Royal Society."

Newton joined the Society about 1667. "While Newton was making his communications to the Society, and had been little more than two years one of its Fellows, some change seems to have taken place in his pecuniary affairs. He had paid his admission money of £2, and for one or two years the annual payment of £2 12s., or a shilling a week; but on the 1st March, 1673, he expressed to Oldenburg his desire 'to be put out from being any longer a member of the Society.' Oldenburg communicated to the Society the contents of this letter, and having ascertained that his desire to resign was from the inconvenience of making the quarterly payments, the Society, as a matter of course, excused him."

"The year 1685 was marked in the history of the Society by the death of Charles II., the nominal founder and the nominal patron of the Society. Dr. Sprat, in his dedication to him of his History of the Society, 'assures him of immortal fame for having established a perpetual succession of inventors,' but we fear that the details given by Mr. Weld have deprived the compliment of all its value. His Majesty's connection with the Society is both historically and traditionally ludicrous. He granted them lands in Ireland, but he failed to give them possession. He gave a paltry sum to found an observatory, but he gave no instruments with which to observe. He appointed Flamsteed his astronomer, but he both overwrought and starved him. He gave the Society a mace constructed expressly for its use, but it would have possessed more interest had it been the bauble which Cromwell kicked, instead of the mace which the Sovereign gave. It was not given to make the Society respected, but to make it royal. He presented the Society with five little glass bubbles—a suitable emblem of the generosity of the donor. He sent a poisoned dagger to the President, but the kitten lanced with it refused to die of the wound. He gave the Society a gift of Chelsea College, but he got it back again when repaired, a great bargain. He professed to be fond of experiments, but though the curators made frequent pre-

parations to receive the King, he did not 'pay the contemplated visit.' Had the Copley-medal, the olive branch of the Society, been founded in his reign, Charles II. would certainly have received it. His Majesty, through the channel of the President, wagered £50 to £5, for 'the compression of air by water.' Hooke made the experiment and the Society acknowledged in its Minutes 'that His Majesty had won the wager!' It is not told by whom the £5 was lost, or to whom it was paid. He gave the Society *their* charter, but not *one* farthing to pay its clerks and doorkeepers, the postages of its correspondence, the expenses of its experiments, and the printing of its transactions. The Fellows were His Majesty's staff of paupers living from hand to mouth. The gorgeous mace glittered on the table when Newton, the 'poor Cambridge student,' as Mr. Weld not very correctly calls him, petitioned for the remission of his weekly payments. At every meeting the cry of poverty arose—lists of increasing arrears were laid on the table, and the very nobles were unable to bear the burden of advancing science, when, as Mr. Weld says, the time and attention of the King were entirely engrossed with the intrigues and pleasures of the court. But not only was the Society kept on less than pauper allowance; it was to a certain degree persecuted. The Society could not exist unless its President, Vice-President, and their deputies took such 'tests and oaths,' as the consciences of some of its most distinguished members would allow them to take. Boyle, as we have seen, was thus deprived of the honor, and the Society of the advantage, of his being President. The three royal charters gave the Secretary authority to carry on a correspondence on science with all sorts of foreigners, and yet poor Oldenburg, their faithful and loyal Secretary, was conveyed a prisoner to the Tower, and liberated without any explanation or apology. 'Thus neglected by the Sovereign,' as Mr. Weld remarks, 'and occupied in pursuits so totally at variance with those of the Court, it will not be very surprising that the decease of Charles II. is not alluded to in the Council or Journal books. The King died on the 6th of Feb., 1685, and the Society met as usual on the 6th of the same month: The *Minutes contain no reference to the monarch's death*, and they are equally silent respecting any endeavors to gain the patronage of his successor, James II.' "

CLASSICAL SECTION.

CLASSICAL TRAINING IN ONTARIO.

(PAST, PRESENT, FUTURE.)

C. S. KERR, B.A., WOODSTOCK.

In considering the question of a fitting subject to present to the members of the Classical Association at its opening session, it occurred to me that it might not be out of place to give a brief sketch of the classical training which has prevailed in our schools for the past twenty-five years, that is from the time when the writer was first introduced to his *mensa mensae* up to the present.

The main purpose of such a sketch would naturally be to compare the condition of things prevailing at that time with that of the present to see if, in the course of these years, we really have made progress and, if so, to estimate as well as possible what that progress has been. Besides this, it seemed that it might be of some value to examine carefully the character of our present classical training in our schools in order to see if there are defects which may be remedied or improvements to be made. Such, in brief, is the plan of this paper, and, in looking over his work, although the writer recognizes how imperfectly it has been done, still he hopes that it will not be without some small value to the members of this Association.

[Owing to the length of the paper, the part which comes next, that which contains the sketch of classical training, is omitted.]

There are several features of our training in Classics in which we believe there have been distinct gains in the past two decades. These may be summed up briefly as follows:

1. The added attention given to the writing of Latin and Greek, and the lessening of the amount of what was often unnecessary grammar has removed a weight from the memory which was

largely unnecessary and even harmful. In place of this the present system is one that tends to develop real power in the student.

2. The improved methods of teaching, especially in the elementary portions of the work, by the principle of induction instead of the purely grammatical way, thus leading the pupil to draw his own conclusions, has tended to give a really scientific character to the work and has also tended to develop the thinking powers of the student to a degree impossible under former methods.

3. Notable improvement is seen in the manner of dealing with the author as described above, and in the largely increased attention given to sight work.

4. Not the least important gain has been the efforts of many teachers to brighten up the study of these subjects by getting the pupils to read works in English relating to the author read, by the use of pictures and especially by the use of the lantern in the teaching of History. Such methods do a great deal towards popularizing the study of the classics and creating a classical atmosphere in the school.

5. Lastly, and of no small moment, we have the improved character of the text-books, both in author and grammar, which have been produced in recent years. Here, too, there has been a distinct gain.

Such, therefore, are some of what the writer believes to be the real advances made in the teaching of Classics during the period mentioned. We have now to look on the other side of the shield and consider our present limitations and by doing so, if possible, clear the way for further advancement. But first we think that it is only fair to mention some of the conditions which tend to hinder us as classical teachers from realizing the best results. And first there is the fact that the time given to Latin, and to Greek especially, is being cut down in a great many schools, in the case of the latter subject almost to the vanishing point. The accumulation of subjects on our school curriculum makes it impossible to give a very large amount of time to any one subject, even to the more difficult ones, and so the study of language for this reason suffers. Then, also, in many schools Manual Training and Domestic Science have lately been introduced. Some of our friends are inclined to make light of these subjects, and possibly, in some degree, to blame them for the decreased interest in language study. However that may be, I, for one, am inclined to think that we do well to heed the words of Inspector Seath, in his address of last

year, when he said: "These new subjects have come to stay, and it would be well for all of you—classical, mathematical, science and moderns men—to realize the fact and to use the movement as it may be used for the proper ends of education." These, in our opinion, are words of wisdom, and we do well to heed them. At the same time we cannot ignore the fact that for good work in Classics a reasonable amount of time should be given and he is not a wise principal who does not recognize this and act accordingly.

The classical teacher is also hampered in his work by the large amount of crude material which he has had thrust upon his classes during the past few years, chiefly from the rural districts and largely the product of the Continuation classes. These students have been over perhaps one year or two years' High School work, but have done little or nothing at language. How to deal with this material is a problem which has taxed severely the patience and ingenuity of the teacher. Such pupils are a drag upon the classes, and the poor work done by them at the examinations has tended to bring discredit upon the work done by the classical teacher.

Another unfavorable condition which we have to contend with is the dual pronunciation. It is not my intention to enter into even a brief discussion of the *pros* and *cons* of this much-debated question. The writer simply ventures to give his own opinion when he says that uniformity according to either method would be much preferable to the present state of affairs and that he trusts that this Association will do all it can to bring this about.

Lastly, we are free to confess that we do not believe the dual text-book system has been an unmixed good in the study of Latin. Apart from the question of the extra expense when a student changes from one school to another, the lack of uniformity in the books is a distinct bar to progress; and in this rapid age when time is so precious, this seems a pity. We should remove out of the way every hindrance to the securing of the best results in Classics, for there are hindrances enough over which we have practically no control. We would mildly suggest that the editors of our two text-books in Latin should contrive a *rapprochement*, in other words, put their heads together and build a text-book which will be the best yet produced.

These are a few of the unfavorable conditions which have hampered, and still do so, the work of the classical teacher and prevent him from securing the highest results—the results which

he is so eager to secure. Still we believe, considering the conditions and along the line of the present requirements in Classics, the teachers are doing good work and securing fairly satisfactory results. The question that remains behind this is: Are these studies being pursued along the best possible lines? In other words, are we as classical teachers making the most of the resources at our disposal, and using these to the best possible advantage? Without doubt the Classics, both in this country and in other lands, are passing through a period of storm and stress. Will they weather it? The satisfactory answer to this rests very largely with the teachers of Classics in our schools, colleges and universities. In this connection the Classics are being subjected to a good deal of friendly criticism to-day in the public journals, especially those of the United States; among the latter there has appeared a series of editorials in the *New York Independent*, a journal which is by no means unsympathetic with the study of the ancient languages. In a recent issue this paper says:—

“From a distinguished member of a Southern University comes a timely confession in which these words occur:

“‘The Classics are beaten and might as well yield gracefully; I regret that I did not devote myself to literature instead of teaching what the world evidently does not want.’

“How many other honorable professors of Greek and Latin, we wonder, would express the same sentiment if candor got the better of modesty? And yet is it quite so certain after all that the Classics are beaten? To those who look on from the outside at the bitter fight waged by these gentlemen to keep the field, the doubt will sometimes occur whether it may not be the teachers of the Classics rather than the Classics themselves that have been weighed and found wanting. A good deal of noise will be required to persuade us that the world has been so misguided all these centuries, and that what made our fathers men will make our children only pedants—if it affects them at all.

“In at least one of our leading universities the old question of the Classics has arisen again in a new form more importunate than ever before. The battle is being fought with peculiar acrimony, and on the decision of that battle will depend largely the character of our higher education for years to come. Certainly one of the great tasks of the present century is the task of selection. For a hundred years now the world has been accumulating knowledge at a prodigious rate and in a prodigious number of

subjects. To suppose that all this mass of information is equally valuable in the education of youth is manifestly absurd. The elective system is a possible scheme of education only so long as some remnant of tradition restrains its operation within tolerably narrow fields. Even now it too often leads young students into a sad waste of time and energy, as, for instance, in the case of a sophomore at Harvard who was found to be studying Sanskrit when he knew practically no Greek or Latin, romance philology when he barely knew French, with geology and Teutonic philology to fill up the measure. Our education must remain in a state of chaos until out of the welter of learning poured into our universities some few studies emerge once again as properly educative—as fitted, that is, for general training and culture. Nor does this mean that room shall not be left for the full development of all special talents. The circle of our knowledge has, in a certain sense, been rounded out, and the most important task now before us is one of selection.

“Whether, when the new selection is made, the Classics will maintain their old position of honor; whether, indeed, they will maintain any position at all, might seem a question of extreme doubtfulness to judge from the confession quoted as our text. For ourselves we have a pretty strong faith in Greek and not a feeble confidence in Latin. It would not be difficult to set forth a number of qualities in these studies which would seem to mark them out peculiarly as a balance against certain sciences which the new curriculum will undoubtedly include. Just now it may be more timely to inquire into the way these studies are taught rather than into the studies themselves. May it not be that the present obloquy has fallen upon these studies partly because the teachers of them have failed to grasp the living tendencies of thought and have dropped behind lamentably in the strenuous modern race?

“The nineteenth century brought two powerful new factors into our intellectual life—the method of science and the sense of history; and no study to-day which does not subscribe to one or the other of these two can hope to survive. Now, by some strange fatality, our classical scholars have adopted the scientific method in exaggerated form, but have almost entirely neglected the historical sense. They have erred doubly and obstinately; for the chief value of classical training to-day is its power to offset science by human interest, and this human interest under present conditions can be set forth only through the historic sense. By historic sense

is meant the habit of regarding human nature as subject to the same laws of change and development and progress as the rest of nature; it is thus in a way the complement of the scientific method. Unfortunately our classical chairs are filled by men who are in this respect out of touch with modern ideas, and it invariably follows that their influence daily dwindles away. Greek is no longer a subject which can be taught by itself, as something complete and shut off from the currents of modern life. Unless in Greek there can be found matter for study which throws light on the problems touching us to-day, unless Greek philosophy and religion have vital significance in the philosophic and religious questions now troubling our minds, unless Greek literature has bearing on the literary evolution of the twentieth century, and unless the teachers of Greek are able to trace historically the evolution of modern civilization out of Greek culture—why, let us bid them Godspeed; let them write their grammars and lexicons and archaeologies in peace, they are nothing to us.”

Now, in considering briefly these remarks, although we probably will not agree to all that is said, still they may present to us material for reflection. We, of course, are among those that believe with the editor that the Classics are not beaten and that, if properly studied, the same subjects which “made men” in the days of old can do the same thing to-day; also that their educational value is such that they will be among the few subjects chosen from the “welter of learning,” to form the select few essential to real culture.

But, if this is to be the case, we believe that, to some extent at least, more especially in our higher seats of learning, and even in our secondary schools, there should be an effort to realize the idea contained in the above-quoted article. We claim, and rightly so, that we have made some advances in the last twenty years. This has been sufficiently shown above. On what we have called the scientific side we have made some real progress. But what about the other side? In the old days Latin and Greek were called, and rightly so, the humanities. Are they regarded as such to-day? Certainly, you say, and we agree with you as far as the actual truth of the statement is concerned. But is it a fact that we are making the most of the humanistic side in our teaching? Or, in our strenuous efforts to promote the scientific, have we neglected the other equally important side? If so, it is well for us to ponder carefully the advisability of retracing our steps in order to take our bearings afresh.

It is the conviction of the writer that in our schools we are compelled by the exigencies of the examinations to spend too much time in drilling the students in prose and grammar to the detriment of the other side, namely, translation. Granted the great educational value of prose composition, we believe there is still a greater value, in its effect certainly upon our tongue, in the translation from Latin and Greek into English, and more time should be given to it than is possible under present conditions. More of the author could be read and a wider range could be covered. The literary side could be dealt with and comparisons made with English authors of a similar type to those read. All this would tend to throw a new interest around the study of Classics, which would be of great service in maintaining them in their position. We know that all these features are attempted now by a good many masters, but owing to the limited time and the insistent demands of the prose, not much can be accomplished.

Illustrated editions of the authors read are also a help. We miss the excellently-illustrated edition of Cæsar which we used to have before new primary books were issued. The introduction of pictures bearing on the work, the use of the lantern in the teaching of History, and if possible, the presence of a few casts of ancient sculpture, all these give a new interest to the subjects and assist in creating that much-desired result—a classical atmosphere in the school room. Anything that will remove the deadness—if there be such—in the so-called dead languages, that will vivify and illumine the work undertaken, that will give a new and a living interest to the study of the language of these ancient peoples and will show to the student that, as well as being trained scientifically and accurately in the rules of grammar and composition, he is acquiring something which possesses a genuine intellectual, moral and æsthetic value; anything that will help to do this should not be despised.

Of course, all this, to be successfully carried out, would mean considerable change in the classical curriculum, and the writer has only made very general suggestions, but the details could be worked out without much difficulty. To secure the necessary time for such a course, the standard for matriculation prose would have to be considerably reduced, and the ground to be covered would have to be specified much more definitely than at present. But this itself would be no great loss, as the quality of the work would be better and proficiency promoted. The student would have a thorough knowledge as far as he has gone, and this would be in

line with the policy prepared by the Minister of Education in requiring a thorough knowledge of a limited portion of the subject, rather than just a speaking acquaintance with a larger portion.

Let me sum up very briefly then the changes suggested in the foregoing pages :

(1) A uniform system of pronunciation.

(2) Uniform introductory text-books in Latin, and a new text-book for introductory Greek.

(3) A cutting down of the amount of work in composition, and the extension in the amount and variety of the author read, allowing at the same time opportunity for a certain amount of instruction along historical, literary and æsthetic lines.

Such, then, in the opinion of the writer, are some of the changes desirable in the classical education of the future in our Province. In this connection let it not be understood that I am disposed to favor a reduction in the standard of classical culture in any way. As I said before, I believe that we have made some real advancement, especially along certain lines. I believe, too, that the teaching being done to-day, considering the conditions, is effective and satisfactory. But conditions are not nearly as favorable as they once were, and we are not wise if we do not recognize these changed conditions and act accordingly. We do well, therefore, at the present juncture to examine carefully our ground, and if it is at all weak, to do what we can to see that it is strengthened.

I do not wish to open the sessions of this Association with any note of gloom, or express fears which may be groundless regarding the studies in which we are so keenly interested. But we ought not to blink our eyes to the facts, and it is an undeniable fact, that there has been a notable decline of late years in the study of the Classics, not so great in the case of Latin, on account of its position in the Junior Leaving Examination, as in that of Greek, the study of which in a good many of even our larger schools seems to be approaching the vanishing point. And now that the department proposes to remove Latin altogether from the Junior Leaving Examination a similar result may be looked for with respect to it. Against this latter proposal, that is to remove Latin from the Junior Leaving Examination, the Association has passed unanimous resolutions before, and no doubt will do so again. But this Association should do more than pass resolutions. It should strive to remove what has been one of the main objections to the continuance of Latin for the examination, namely, the difficulty of the papers,

especially in connection with the composition, and now that the Minister proposes to reduce the standard of Senior Leaving Latin to that of Junior Leaving, it leaves the way open to suggest that Latin be retained for Junior Leaving also, with a corresponding reduction in difficulty, so that the examination would be of about the same character as the former Primary or Third Class Examination. There might be a little difficulty in adjusting this to the Junior Matriculation Examination, but we believe that this could be overcome. We offer this suggestion for discussion by the members of the Association, and sincerely trust that some plan, if not this one, may be adopted by which Latin may be retained for this examination.

In closing these remarks we do not hesitate to say that we take no gloomy view of the future of Classics in this country. Present conditions may seem unfavorable; the rapid growth of the country tending to absorb men's attention, the material ideals which prevail in education, the absence in our population of any leisured class—these, with other conditions, may cause them to suffer a temporary eclipse, but in due time, the cloud will pass, the bright rays of classical culture will again gleam forth and the Classics will take the place which they deserve in the educational life of our Province and nation.

We are encouraged, also, in considering the fact that the leaders in the educational world, both in this country and across the border are giving forth utterances on this point which have no uncertain meaning. Among the latter take a late speech of the new President of old historic Princeton, Dr. Woodrow Wilson. I cannot do better than give the summary of the address as it appears in the *New York Commercial Advertiser*:

“Its central theme is the relation of the college proper to the great University whose very heart it is. President Wilson recognizes, with all the appreciation of an accomplished scholar, the wholly admirable transformation which has vivified and radically altered the spirit of American scholarship. He notes the acquisition of what he describes as ‘a sober passion for accuracy’ as contrasted with the superficial, slipshod spirit of fifty years ago. He dwells with pride upon the splendid proficiency in investigation which has taken the place of a purely sterile erudition, and which has led to the conquest of new intellectual territory and ‘the addition of infinite detail to the map of knowledge.’ Of all these things, which come to us as a noble heritage from Germany, he speaks with

genuine enthusiasm. Yet, on the other hand, he asks, with great significance, what is to be said of the preliminary training of the specialist, of the general foundations of knowledge, and of 'the equipment of the mind which all men must have who are to serve this busy, this sophisticated generation?'

"In gaining much, President Wilson believes (and no one can deny the accuracy of his belief) that a great deal has been lost which ought to be recovered. We have received, he says, an immense increase in our knowledge; but, on the other hand, we have failed to preserve that harmonious system and thorough discipline which were the direct result of the narrower methods of an earlier generation. Hence, he inquires, what ought to be, in the immediate future, the function of the college and of undergraduate instruction, which establishes the foundation upon which not only must the specialist build, but upon which also the average man who goes straight from the college to the *Sturm und Drang* of practical life must firmly plant his feet? It is here that President Wilson traverses by implication the argument of President Butler, who so lately put forth a plea for making the undergraduate course a utilitarian two years' preparation for professional business life. To Dr. Wilson the college 'should seek to make the men whom it receives something more than excellent servants of a trade or skilled practitioners of a profession.' We must deal, he says, in the college, with the spirits of men, not with their fortunes, releasing the perception of the mind for a wide and catholic view of life, which shall constitute a 'preliminary orientation.' And this catholicity of view is, in his opinion, best derived from History, Philosophy, and Literature, in which the experience of the world has been condensed. From them he says, can be extracted the enlightenment of those who have gone the long journey of experience with the race.

"Holding these views and enlarging upon them with admirable clarity and persuasiveness, President Wilson urges that for the purely collegiate training no subjects of study can ever take the place of the humanities, as these were understood and taught in days gone by. The Classics, the Mathematics, the linguistic studies of the old curriculum have found no equivalents in the early disciplining of a youthful mind, which from them takes fibre, strength, and certainty of touch, and which afford the discipline they give precisely because of their great definiteness and the sureness of their methods and their power of determination from the perfection

which they embody. It is conceivable, he thinks, that at some future time, this general study will be no part of the function of the University, and that it will be relegated, as President Butler would like to see it relegated, to the secondary schools, which will become the American equivalent of the German *gymnasia*; but he thinks that time is far remote, and he says that, for his part, he does not wish to see it come. Speaking as the President of a great University, he pledges Princeton to a restoration and a retention of the traditional *studium generale* in its college, so that the historic University, as a whole, shall represent the whole range and scope of of education in its entirety, with the accuracy and breadth of the specialist, blended and brought into perpetual contact with the civilizing influences of the old learning and the highest culture."

Coupled with this we place an extract from the inaugural address of Dr. E. J. James, the lately appointed President of the North-Western University, a much more modern institution than the former. Dr. James says:

"It is not necessary, as has been well said by one of our great scholars, that every man in the community should study Latin and Greek for ten or twelve years; it is not necessary that every man should have an adequate conception of Greek and Roman civilization. It is very necessary, however, to national welfare that some members of our society should give time and attention to these things; that some scholars should give strength and power to the mastery of this ancient civilization and thus interpret for our day and generation the imperishable experiences of Greece and Rome, live over for us their history, and be able to rewrite and reinterpret it for us all.

"Now there has never been a time in this country when the facilities for the study of the humanities have been greater, or the ardor in their pursuit more intense than to-day. Never has the study itself been more practical and useful than at present. And it seems to me apparent that the very emphasis which pure and applied science has received in our modern educational system by the union of Technical School and University has made its contribution to the revolution in the study of the humanities which has marked the last generation in this country. Technical students leave our universities defenders of the importance of the study of the humanities—a justification in itself of the union of the polytechnicum and the University."

These speeches prove, therefore, that in the highest seats of

learning, the ancient languages continue to be estimated at their true value. We believe that the best proof of their value and influence is contained in the closing words of President James, namely, that the graduates of the Technical Schools who have combined the literary with their scientific training are found among their strongest supporters. We believe that this is largely the case also in our own country. With such a consensus of opinion in favor of the Classics from those outside the ranks, it only remains for us who are of the fraternity to do our part intelligently and faithfully and the result will undoubtedly be that these subjects, which have formed such a prominent part in our own training will continue to exert the same beneficial and profitable influence in the education of the coming youth of our nation.

A REVIEW OF SOME RECENT CLASSICAL BOOKS.

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[Abstract.]

The works to which the attention of classical teachers was called are as follows:

1. "The Teaching of Latin and Greek in the Secondary School," by Bennett and Bristol (Longmans, Green & Co.). This very practical and suggestive book discusses the leading problems in aims and methods of classical teaching in the United States. The Latin part is the more important, especially Chapter II., which subjects the innovations of the past decade or two in beginners' work to a candid and searching criticism. Other interesting chapters are on the justification of Latin in secondary education, *Cæsar versus Nepos*, the teaching of prose composition, and on illustrative material such as maps, photographs, casts. The Greek part is less radical, and discusses details rather than fundamental principles. An excellent bibliography prefaces each chapter throughout.

2. Greek Grammar. The most important work in English since Goodwin's "Moods and Tenses" is "The Syntax of Classical Greek," by Gildersleeve (American Book Co.). Part I., which has already appeared, deals with the syntax of the subject, copula, concord; voices; moods and tenses so far as they appear in the simple sentence. Very striking is the clear arrangement of illustrations, enabling one readily to estimate range of usage; the attention paid to the relation between syntax and stylistic effect; and the freshness and insight displayed throughout.

Other grammars of value noticed were: Thompson's "Syntax of Attic Greek" (Rivington), not a new book but one of great value, especially as in both treatment and illustrations it is quite independent of Goodwin; Thompson's "Homeric Grammar" (Rivington), a small and admirably clear compendium which every teacher of Homer should have; Hogue's "Irregular Verbs of Attic Prose" (Ginn & Co.), a book of reference of great practical value on the forms, usage, compounds and derivatives of the Greek verb; Babbitt's "Grammar of Attic and Ionic Greek" (American Book Co.), a sort of revised and shortened Goodwin; and Kaegi's "Short Grammar of Classical Greek," translated by Kleist.

3. Greek Prose Composition. Two books of real value to the teacher of Honor Matriculation Prose are by North and Hillard (Rivington), and by Bonner (Scott, Foresman & Co.), the latter by a former Ontario teacher and based entirely on the *Anabasis*. Both books provide an abundance of well selected and graded exercises (both sentences and continuous prose). North and Hillard's gives clear statements of the absolutely essential things; Bonner's treatment of syntax is much fuller. The vocabularies in both are admirable for teaching purposes; Bonner's being classified under such heads as Flight and Pursuit, Nautical Terms, Time.

4. Latin Prose Composition. Attention was called only to a work by North and Hillard (Rivington), on the same lines as their Greek book, but containing also a most useful classified military vocabulary similar to that in Bonner's "Greek Prose Composition."

5. Latin Grammar. The Gildersleeve-Lodge Grammar (University Publishing Co.) is still the best in the field as regards completeness, lucid and illuminating treatment of syntax and attention to the history of usage. But some more recent works have their strong points also: Harkness' "Complete Latin Grammar" (American Book Co.), while preserving the familiar features, has been revised so as to be in harmony with the best scholarship of to-day; Bennett's "Latin Grammar" (Allyn & Bacon), the forerunner of the shorter Latin Grammars now in vogue, has effected a surprising amount of reduction by omitting what is exceptional in form and usage, and often throws new light on a construction by its suggestive and original treatment of syntax.

Uniform with this is Bennett's "Appendix" (Allyn & Bacon), which in a very interesting way discusses fully matters that are seldom more than touched upon in Latin Grammars, such as the evidence for the pronunciation of Latin, the hidden quantities, and the history of sounds and inflections. Especially valuable is the chapter on the development of the various uses of the cases and moods in Latin. A very complete and beautiful book is by Lane (American Book Co.), which embodies the results of much independent investigation, and treats with unusual fulness such subjects as the sequence of tenses and the syntax of conjunctive dependent clauses. The translation of the illustrations in this book is worthy of careful study.

6. History, Archæology and Miscellaneous. In Greek history every teacher of classics should make himself familiar with Grant's "Greece in the Age of Pericles" (Scribner), and Botsford's "History of

Greece" (MacMillan & Co.), two most readable books. In Roman history an important work just published is Oman's "Seven Roman Statesmen" (E. Arnold).

In Archæology, attention was directed to three admirably illustrated works published by MacMillan & Co.: "Ancient Athens," by Ernest Gardner; "Ave Roma Immortalis," by Crawford; and "Pompeii, its Life and Art," by Mau. The first is a new book, the other two have just been reissued in cheaper and revised editions.

For general reference an invaluable book is Gow's "Companion to School Classics" (MacMillan & Co.). The best dictionary of antiquities for a school library is Harper's. "Illustrations of School Classics," by Hill (MacMillan & Co.), will be found helpful.

Two Latin dictionaries, not so well known as they deserve to be, are edited by Charlton T. Lewis (Harper's); the "Latin Dictionary for Schools" being the best intermediate dictionary available, and the "Elementary Dictionary" the best small dictionary.

Finally attention was called to the recent edition of Homer, *Odyssey* 13 to 24, by Monro (Clarendon Press), which contains a masterly appendix on the history and present condition of the Homeric Question.

A SUITABLE GREEK INTRODUCTORY.

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The waning popularity of the study of Greek must be a subject of regret to every lover of the Classics. There are, it would seem, fewer pilgrims on the road to Parnassus than ever before. The guides who hitherto have derived a modest competency from exploiting the venerable ruins and directing the steps of neophytes seeking initiation in the ancient lore, are in alarm. They see the sources from which they drew their sustenance gradually diminishing, as year by year the stream of pilgrims diminishes in volume.

Culture is now assailed as an impossible ideal under existing conditions, and as a useless encumbrance in the struggle for a living. The study of Latin and Greek, which has always been regarded as one of the best means for the development of morals and manners, has become widely discredited. The Philistines have multiplied like locusts and are devouring the land. The disciples of culture dwell in holes and caves of the earth. The scientists and commercialists have taken away their weapons and there are no swords and spears in the camp of the oppressed and no smiths to fashion the same.

But jesting aside, the decline in the study of Greek is not entirely due to the attacks of those who ignorantly assail it. Much yet remains to be done—to recur to the figure with which we began—in order to smooth the path to the heights. Could not the subject be taught in such a way as to render the initial stages more interesting and less laborious? Could not the teaching of the language be more closely associated with the history of the Greeks? Could not the interest of the pupils be aroused by judicious readings from Greek literature and elementary exposition of the life and teachings of Greek philosophers?

These things can all be done and every teacher, no doubt, regrets that he has not made more use of these resources which lie ready to his hand.

But when all is said, Greek remains a difficult subject and it is impossible to acquire a knowledge of this language, at least, in a short course of easy lessons. Greek is a language with a large vocabulary, a complicated syntax, and an elaborate system of inflection. It cannot be acquired without labor. It is idle to

represent it as a language the study of which at the beginning affords pleasure to the pupil. The only pleasure will be the pleasure of conquest. It is, and will remain, a difficult language.

The greatest service that can be rendered Greek is the publication of a good elementary book. There is no doubt that White's "Beginner's Greek Book" was a distinct advance on preceding books, and that it has elevated the standard of scholarship, especially among the teachers themselves, but it is open to serious objections. It is too large and clumsy. The vocabularies are too long. Twenty new words to an exercise are altogether too many. The Greek sentences in the exercise are too numerous and taken out of their original context are often absurd and incomprehensible. In fact, the Greek is harder to translate than the English, which should not be the case. The book contains large sections which may wisely be omitted. Yet to do this is unsatisfactory to the teacher and is likely to produce in the mind of the pupil an idea of lack of thoroughness. Undue prominence, again, is given to the inductive method. While the book is written from the standpoint of the mature mind rather than from a knowledge of the immature intellect of a boy of fifteen, yet it advances too slowly, considering the point of mental development which boys have attained when they begin the study of Greek. It contains too much philology, which should be a condiment at the feast of learning, and not a whole course in itself. The importance of word formation and word association is rather overdone in all the beginner's books that the writer has examined.

It can serve no good pedagogic end to record in a text-book, as one writer does, that "sozodont" is derived from $\sigma\omega\acute{\zeta}\omega$, or as another writer does, to draw attention to the fact that the Greek $\tau\lambda\acute{\alpha}\omega$ is related to the Scotch word "thole." In the one case "sozodont" is a very doubtful word, and in the other instance, not one pupil in a hundred is likely to hear or use the word "thole." The place for philology is not in the text-book, except in the most meagre outlines, but in the teaching of the instructor.

No doubt the ideal Greek book will be an evolution. Ultimately it will probably come from some American with the American genius for system and organization. He will avail himself of the results of English and German scholarship, perhaps without thanks, and will produce a manual fitted to attain the truly American ideal of the maximum of work in the minimum of time.

The beginner's book which is required now is very different from

the manual which would have been satisfactory some years ago. The aim in teaching Greek is to introduce the pupil as quickly as possible to the reading of Greek literature. For this purpose he requires a good working knowledge of the essentials of the language. He should know thoroughly the broad outlines, and his attention should not be diverted to details, which are essential to scholarships, if the pupil is to become a professor of Greek, but which are only burdensome to the average student and impede his progress; hence our ideal manual should contain nothing but essentials, clearly and methodically expressed.

Again, almost all students of Greek in Ontario begin that language after one or two years' study of Latin. Advantage should be taken of this fact in teaching Greek. When the pupil has mastered the elements of Latin syntax he does not find much difficulty in understanding Greek constructions. It is the accidentence that is the greatest difficulty. Hence a good beginner's book should give the first place to a systematic outline of accidentence, with only so much syntax as will enable the pupil to construct sentences. Greek and Latin are so much alike that advantage should be taken of the knowledge already acquired in Latin. To apply the inductive method to the simple rules of Greek syntax is for a boy who has spent one or two years at Latin, rather ridiculous. Such a pupil should have no difficulty with elementary constructions. Let him grapple at once with the solid difficulties of declensions and verb inflections and let him not be treated with homeopathic doses which delude him into the belief that the subject is easy and does not require effort.

Nothing is so important in the early stages of Greek teaching as constant drill upon paradigms and vocabularies. The books which the writer has examined, Frisbee's "Beginner's Greek Book," Gleason and Atherton's "First Greek Book," and Ball's "Elements of Greek," all recognize this fact, and have printed in the appendix a synopsis of paradigms and inflections. This is a feature which is lacking in White's book, probably because the book is already too bulky, and this suggests another objection. A book of such size rather terrifies than inspires the beginner. He despairs of mastering the contents of so many pages, and he is disheartened at the outset. This objection applies with equal force to Frisbee's book; which is altogether too large; but Gleason and Atherton's, and Ball's books are about the right size and suggest the possibility of thorough mastery, a satisfaction to the teacher as well as the pupil.

Another point which is worth considering is the mechanical appearance and "get up" of these books. It is regrettable that school books published in Canada are, with some exceptions, much inferior to English and American books in typography, in paper and in binding.

Of the three books mentioned above, Ball's "Elements," published by the Macmillan Co., is in these particulars *facile princeps*; next comes Gleason and Atherton's book, published by the American Book Co. These two books also excel Frisbee's book in arrangement of matter and indeed in every particular.

There is apparently an agreement of opinion among authors of Greek books as to the best vocabulary for beginners to acquire. The three books examined by the writer present lists of words chosen from the Anabasis. There is substantial agreement on this point; and as Xenophon is the author who is read first the plan possesses many advantages. But it is open to some objections. Many words which the pupil learns and uses in Xenophon he is not likely to meet again. The place for such words as *ἄλωπενῆ*, *σπάρτον*, *ἀπόπλοος*, *κώπη φέλιον* is in the vocabulary of an annotated edition not in the word lists of a manual. The nouns which a beginner first acquires should be the names of the common objects which he meets and thinks about every day. The verbs should be the names of the simplest and most elementary ideas. Everything should be concrete at the beginning. And to carry out this idea further, it is preferable to provide the students with sentences for translation which relate to ordinary occurrences, and as far as possible to incidents common alike to ancient and to modern life. Classical scholarship is worth little if the author of a beginner's book cannot compose sentences in Greek which will appear to the beginner as intelligible expressions of thought. There is no particular virtue in extracts from Greek authors torn from their context and rendered doubly difficult to translate, since there is nothing to give the beginner a clue as to their meaning.

The authors of German and French grammars have abandoned the senseless exercises with which they used to disgust beginners. The Latin books authorized in Ontario have followed in the same direction. The pupil is no longer vexed with Balbus and his wall, or endless sentences introduced by "*Quis dubitat*" and "*Non est dubium*." Why should not the authors of Greek books leave the doings of generals and camps and forget about parasangs and stages, exiles and pillagings, phalanxes and Thracians and write

sentences and examples from common life. If the writers of elementary books studiously excluded all words which would not be used in daily life by ordinary common men, surely the resulting vocabulary would, in the long run, be more satisfactory than a vocabulary embracing, say, only military and political terms. Language study should begin with the words that a child uses. If some scholars would give us the vocabulary of an Athenian boy of fifteen and base his book upon that, giving sentences such as a boy would be likely to use in ordinary life, the writer ventures to think that Greek would become a more living reality to beginners and that they would ultimately gain a deeper insight into the ἡθος of the language. It is a pity that when the Greek literature is so rich and varied pupils should be introduced through the portal of Xenophon's *Anabasis*, a work whose single merit is its lucid style, the very merit which a beginner fails to appreciate, while in other respects the *Anabasis* is dull and uninteresting, and lacks the qualities which make Greek literature valuable. Would not a Greek reader with simple extracts from the best writers or even modern stories turned into Greek by competent scholars, a reader on the model of the French and German readers used in Ontario, be much more effective in introducing boys to Greek literature and arousing their interest in its masterpieces?

In conclusion, just a word about the two books that have seemed to the writer to be worthy of special praise. The "First Greek Book," by Gleason and Atherton of the Roxbury Latin School, has been strongly recommended by Professor Collar, and is very widely in use already in the United States. It was written, so the publishers state, because the author found from personal experience that White's book was unsatisfactory. It contains many excellent features, but it is perhaps too radical in relegating the dual to the appendix and in some other particulars, yet it is a step in the right direction. It bears the significant motto, *μηδὲν ἄγαν*. Here is a descriptive extract from the publishers' advertisement:

"It is brief, containing fifty lessons, requiring at the most one hundred recitations. Allowing five recitations a week, the book may be completed in two-thirds of the school year, preparing the pupil thoroughly for the *Anabasis*, and leaving a term for regular translation. It is not bulky, heavy nor crowded with unnecessary detail.

"It does not waste time and destroy interest by repeating over and over again those principles which are familiar to the pupil

from his study of Latin and English, but introduces early those vital principles of syntax, not kindred with Latin or English, which, if presented soon and kept before the student steadily, come to seem the natural form of expression."

Ball's "Elements of Greek," published last year, looks as if it would be an excellent introductory book. Its mechanical "get up" is flawless. It is exceedingly ingenious in the arrangement of matter. While progressive, it is fairly conservative in the treatment of the subject. It contains many interesting devices, as, for example, a pictorial representation of the local meaning of prepositions, together with a tabulated statement of metaphorical meanings. There are special word lists for purposes of review, synopses of declensions, etc. But it is impossible to judge accurately of any school manual until it has been tried in the class-room. Faults and merits appear there which previously a close scrutiny failed to discover. Indeed we may conclude that, in regard to school books, the homely proverb is true, "The proof of the pudding is the eating." Perhaps if some of the innovations humbly suggested above were carried into effect in the making of Greek books and the teaching of Greek the stream of pilgrims to Parnassus would resume its former proportions and the credit of classical studies be in part restored.

FIRST YEAR'S WORK IN LATIN.

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(Abstract.)

The subject could be very appropriately dealt with under the two heads, Quantity and Quality. It was preferable, however, to refer to these incidentally. For while quantity, provided quality be added, was of great value, quantity apart from quality was of little value. From one view-point, however, the quantity of Latin studied is of great significance. The class must not get the idea that one year's work is not going to amount to much; that so little is going to be achieved the first year that despair of ever getting through even the Introductory Book takes possession of them, produces listlessness and paralyzes all the teacher's efforts. The attitude of the young pupil beginning Latin is analogous to the child learning to talk. The child has a consuming passion to talk, to imitate everything its ears hear uttered. Such is the attitude of the beginner in Latin. Care must be exercised not to stifle their ambition and desire to learn the language. They should not be bothered with any extraneous matter. If digressions be thought desirable, sufficient opportunity will be afforded by the words of the language itself. Such words as *templum*, *deus*, *consul*, *senatus*, *legio*, *exercitus*, and many others, of which every vocabulary will furnish examples, suggest the easiest means of giving outside interest to the study and at the same time of imparting useful information. No devices, however, of any kind to keep up the interest can take the place of the teacher's own personality. Let the interest centre around the manner in which you handle your class and around the subject as you teach it. From the very first train the pupils to big efforts in the way of reciting and doing exercises. Allow no drawing, no spelling out, when the hour for recitation comes, but insist upon the pupils performing with accuracy and expedition an exercise which, when done in the proper way, is the work of only one or a few minutes.

MATHEMATICAL AND PHYSICAL SECTION.

IS EUCLID THE BEST GEOMETRY FOR THE HIGH SCHOOL?

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The title of my paper has been put in the form of an inquiry because I have been asking myself this question for several years, and because I wish the help of my fellow mathematical teachers in answering it. I may as well state at the outset that every year I have become more and more inclined to answer it in the negative. I have been constrained to this opinion by several distinct causes.

The first of these is the fact that with the majority of pupils there is little real comprehension of the Geometry we are endeavoring to teach them, and that, instead of being trained in the accurate thinking that a study of Euclid is supposed to inculcate, they are, in far too many instances, trying to memorize matter of whose significance they are only dimly conscious. Teachers are apt to overlook this fact on account of the other fact that so few, comparatively, of the candidates at the departmental and University examinations fail in Geometry. We often imagine that because pupils are successful in passing their examinations, they succeed in attaining the benefits the subject of examination is supposed to confer. It is hardly necessary to add that this is not always true.

The second objection I have to Euclid is that it does not fit in with the work we are doing in other branches of Mathematics. The different subjects in the mathematical course are, to a certain extent, related and interdependent. Algebra and Geometry, it is true, may be studied independently, but both are required in all the applied Mathematics we teach, Mensuration, Physics and Trigonometry.

The most valuable feature of Euclid's books on Geometry is the logical exactitude with which he proceeds from the known to th

unknown, deducing abstruse and difficult theorems from a few simple axioms and postulates. Though we recognize this merit and proclaim it as our guiding mathematical principle, yet we ignore it largely in teaching applied Mathematics in the High School. As if Euclid should prove theorems in Book II. by means of truths established in Book VI.

Not only do we violate deductive reasoning after the study of Euclid is begun, but we attempt to teach Mensuration and sometimes Physics before commencing any formal Geometry. For I suppose that my experience is that of other mathematical teachers, that Euclid cannot be successfully taught in Form I.

Before examining these objections in greater detail it may be well to inquire why Euclid has been retained as the principal text-book in elementary Geometry for so many centuries. It is no light matter to question the merits of a work with such a record. One feels in the position of a critic of Holy Scripture. But these are the days of criticism. The higher critics of the Bible are not those with little reverence for that great book. Rather the reverse. I can assure you that it is with no lack of reverence for Euclid, no want of appreciation of the value of his great work that I undertake this discussion.

When Euclid compiled his books of Geometry they were intended for the use of men who loved the refinement of Greek logic, and on through the ages they were rightly recognized as the best foundation for a course in Logic, or latterly in the higher Mathematics. A legend over the door of an ancient school of philosophy forbade the entrance of him who knew not Geometry. In modern schools Euclid was long read in Latin, always, of course, by students of considerable physical and mental maturity. How different with our High School pupils of to-day, whose ages range from twelve to eighteen years.

Briefly, I may say, Euclid has been retained :

First. Because of the perfection of his books as a work of purely deductive reasoning.

Second. Because, having been so long a standard work, the propositions are convenient for reference.

Principally, I believe, in latter years at any rate, because the Universities, requiring in their matriculants a good foundation for a higher superstructure in Mathematics, find that Euclid gives such a foundation.

Now it is on behalf of the High School pupils that I write, and

it is safe, I think, to assume that ninety-five per cent. of these never get any mathematical training beyond the limit of the High School course. Euclid is good for those mature enough to appreciate the value of his abstract and strictly logical reasoning. But most of our High School pupils are not that. They are, in these days, decidedly immature.

The value of Euclid's propositions for reference is, I believe, very much overestimated. References by number are valuable only while the student is reading any particular work, and any other numbers are as good as Euclid's. In other branches of Mathematics we have no such standard and suffer no inconvenience.

Finally, the fact that University students who take honor Mathematics obtain a good elementary foundation by the study of Euclid is no evidence of its value to the 95 per cent. who do not take that course. Euclid serves as a selective medium. The five per cent. are a survival of the fittest. They have mental strength and mathematical ability to assimilate the food given them and become strong. Some of the others profit to a certain extent by it. Many, by being stuffed with an indigestible pabulum, become, if I may use the term, mental dyspeptics, nauseated by Geometry and often disliking all Mathematics.

Now that I have stated and briefly answered these arguments in favor of Euclid, let me give, in more detail, some of the objections I have found to the use of this work, great and masterful though it be, as a High School text-book in Geometry.

The abstractions of Euclid are beyond the comprehension or appreciation of the pupils of Form I., and several of the most difficult propositions of the First Book occur at the very beginning. There are more difficulties in the first eight propositions than in the following twenty. Besides, the fact that Euclid's Geometry is dissociated from all measurement and numerical calculation, makes his propositions abstractions that are often dissociated from every practical idea. In the meantime much of the work the student does in Mensuration is a mere memorization of rules for arithmetical calculation. Another objection to Euclid in the lower forms is that the problems are often intended to demonstrate the possibility of a certain construction rather than to give a practical method of making that construction.

The result of these difficulties is that the formal study of Geometry is usually postponed till the pupil reaches the Second Form, in some schools the higher division of that form, or until the third

year in the High School. Now there is much use for Geometry in the lower forms. A practical and theoretical course in Geometry should accompany the Mensuration taught in these forms.

The greatest inconvenience, however, from the lack of geometrical teaching in the lower forms, is felt by those schools that have a Manual Training department. Mechanical Drawing is a necessary part of this course. This drawing is geometrical, and practical Geometry, to give the best educational results, should be accompanied by the theoretical.

All these difficulties in Forms I. and II. may be overcome, whether Euclid is retained in the higher forms or not, by such a preliminary course as I shall refer to presently.

When the pupil reaches Form III. it may be thought that here Euclid is quite appropriate, especially if the pupil has had a preliminary course in practical Geometry. As a study by itself it is perhaps not very objectionable. As related to the Applied Mathematics it is more objectionable than in the lower forms.

One of the most useful of geometrical principles in practical Mathematics is proportion. This is required frequently both in Mensuration and Physics. Ratio is the foundation of Trigonometry. But the High School pupil gets no formal training in anything approaching ratio till near the end of his course. After he is through with Mensuration, much of his Physics, and well on in Trigonometry, he begins the study of ratio. It is, I think, very much to be regretted that the great majority of the pupils in the High School are taught nothing of ratio and proportion, except such as the teacher of Applied Mathematics cannot avoid giving. Neither in Algebra and Arithmetic, nor in Geometry is there any recognition of these till Form IV. is reached. Our arithmetics no longer contain even the simple rule of three. It is only the fact that all number is really ratio and that the pupil's knowledge of arithmetical fractions gives him unconsciously an idea of ratio, that makes much of the practical Mathematics possible. Ratio and proportion would make the teaching of Mensuration much easier. The laws of Physics are largely expressed in ratio, simple and compound. Why not have this subject formally taught?

But how, it may be asked, shall we introduce proportion into Form III. when it is the greatest mathematical difficulty Form IV. pupils have to contend with? This is my final, and perhaps most serious objection to Euclid. As he presents proportion very few of Form IV. pupils even understand it. In teaching

Euclid for twenty years, I doubt if I have had twenty pupils who understood Euclid's method of equimultiples in defining equal ratios. After spending three or four weeks on the definitions of Book V. and the first proposition of Book VI., I can return to these after leaving them for the same length of time, and seldom find one pupil who can make sense of this proposition or the definition of equal ratios. The method of submultiples or measures is the natural one and is easily intelligible. Again how many ever understand duplicate ratio as presented by Euclid? In teaching Mensuration we have to use the theorem that the areas of similar plain figures are to one another as the squares of their corresponding dimensions. Why not state and prove this in a form intelligible to the average student? In fact, if numerical calculations were used continually along with geometrical theorems there would be little need for Mensuration as a distinct branch of study.

If the objections I have urged against the use of Euclid in the High School are substantial, the question naturally arises, what would be better? I hold no brief for any other work. In fact, I do not know of any non-Euclidian text-book on Geometry that exactly fills what I consider the requirements for our Ontario High Schools.

I shall, however, venture to outline a course that would, it seems to me, produce harmony in the whole mathematical course, give to the great majority of our pupils, those who do not take an advanced course in the Universities or the Schools of Science, a more practical knowledge of Geometry than they at present obtain, and would prepare the small minority as thoroughly as Euclid does for the higher work. It may, I suppose, be assumed as an axiom that the memorization of propositions they do not understand, or whose significance they do not appreciate, is, in the study of Mathematics, whatever it may be in the study of anything else, of no benefit whatever to the students.

The first consideration in arranging a course in Geometry is to present to the student only what is clearly intelligible. The second is to select such propositions as are theoretically and practically useful. The third is that these should be presented in a form and in such order as will make them, at least in the higher forms, just as clearly deductive, just as strictly logical, as are those of Euclid.

A systematic course in Geometry might be begun with the pupils of the First Form. This should consist principally of the accurate

drawing with instruments of geometrical figures, the discovery by induction of geometrical truths, and the proof of the simpler theorems deductively. Too great importance cannot be given to this part of geometrical teaching. When Euclid is begun in Form II. without this preliminary training, the pupils attempt abstract reasoning about that of which they have no concrete concepts. Here is to be found, I think, the chief cause of the difficulty most pupils find in the study of Geometry. After a year's course in practical drawing of geometrical figures pupils would be in a position to appreciate the value of much of Euclid's books that they never do appreciate throughout the whole of their High School course. Take, for instance, the definition of a right angle. I have asked pupils who have studied Euclid for years, how a carpenter, who had dropped his square from the roof of a house, could, on recovering it, test if it were true. Generally I have been told he would compare it with another square, or that he would measure to see if it contained ninety degrees. Let the pupil use a wooden set square to draw right angles, let him occasionally test its accuracy and the meaning of right angle would be impressed on him as it otherwise never would be. Again, let him actually construct with great accuracy, by the use of rule and protractor, from given numerical data, various kinds of triangles; let the data be varied so that he will have given all the different instances in the solution of triangles, and propositions 4, 8 and 26 of Euclid's First Book will have a significance they cannot otherwise have until the solution of triangles is reached in Trigonometry. He would actually by this method learn the solution of triangles. Quite a number even of the propositions of Book II. become, when the squares and rectangles are accurately drawn, very simple to those who have learned little or no theoretical Geometry. Such a course would be of immense value to boys taking Manual Training, to girls in Domestic Science and Ornamental or Industrial Drawing.

In Form II. the principal propositions of Euclid's First and Third books, omitting most of those relating to areas, might be taught. Considerable attention should, I think, still be given to accurate construction and numerical examples, but much more to rigid demonstration.

The first thing in Geometry I would give to Form III. would be ratio and proportion with the leading propositions of Euclid's Sixth Book. When presented by the method of measures and fractions these present no great difficulty. At the same time I think it

would be well to devote some attention to ratio and proportion in Algebra. We might, for instance, instead of the chapter on theorems in fractions in the High School Algebra, about the place the Third Form work usually begins, give some instruction in ratio and proportion, to which much of the work in this chapter really belongs. After proportion the propositions relating to areas can be more satisfactorily treated than before. When the pupil is fairly familiar with ratio and proportion I would introduce the trigonometrical ratios and their simplest relations and uses. These would be a great help in dealing with questions in Physics and Mensuration. How much better the subject of light, for instance, which is now in the Third Form Physics, could be taught along with Geometry of this kind.

For Form IV. there remains those propositions relating to polygons and circles, a little more fully treated than in Euclid's Fourth Book, with more difficult exercises on the work of the lower forms. Besides these, there might be some elementary solid Geometry taught in this form. I have long thought that the total omission of solid Geometry from the High School course a matter of regret. The work is heavy enough as it is, but, with many of the difficulties of Euclid removed as I have suggested, and an extra year's work in the First Form there would be no more for this form than at present. Synthetic solid Geometry does not seem just now to enter into any course in this country, in High School or college. A little of it would, I think, be beneficial to the first class Public School teachers, quite a number of whom become trainers of teachers in the Model School. The teaching of Mensuration in the Public School might thus indirectly be improved.

Throughout this paper I have spoken on behalf of the High School pupils who do not take Advanced Mathematics. I believe the course I have outlined would also be better for the small minority who do go on to higher work. If these few were not better prepared for the higher work than at present, there would be, I am convinced, more of them well prepared.

I have not referred to the introduction into Geometry of more modern ideas, such as the principle of continuity, loci, and limiting positions of points and lines, for most of the later editions of Euclid give some notion of these. It is needless to say they would be at least as well suited to the course I have suggested as to Euclid.

In seeking a remedy for these objections I have found to the use of Euclid, I have freely consulted various non-Euclidian works

on Geometry. Of these there are not a few, for Euclid is used little, if at all, in the United States, while in England there is a strong movement in favor of more modern methods, and several good works have lately been published in that country.

On reading over this paper it seemed to me, as it doubtless has to you, very much in the first person. This is unavoidable, as it pretends to give, in the objections urged against Euclid, only the result of my personal experience in teaching Geometry for many years. Where I am in error I crave your indulgence and friendly criticism, and, in closing, ask your aid in answering the question that forms the title of this paper.

*THE GERMAN UNIVERSITY AND GERMAN UNIVERSITY
MATHEMATICS.*

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In the present paper I shall endeavor to give some general idea of the conditions under which the study of Mathematics is pursued in the German Universities. Besides conditions peculiar to the study of Mathematics, I shall have to make some mention of those general conditions whose influence affects the department of Mathematics in common with other departments of University study.

The University as it exists in Germany, with all its freedom, strikes one as an anomaly, in view of the restricted political liberties enjoyed by the citizens of that country. It is a little intellectual democracy, in which the maximum liberty is accorded to both student and professor. The most independent position in Germany is that of the University professor. He is appointed by the state and his appointment depends solely on the importance of his original contributions to his science. This is already a very honorable ground of appointment. Once appointed he is practically irremovable—this adds dignity to the position. In his position, too, he is his own master. There is no one over him, no one to dictate to him the subjects on which he is to lecture. In the case of a mathematical professor it is expected, of course, that he will lecture on mathematical subjects. Further than that nothing is prescribed. There is no fixed curriculum distributed into so many courses leading to a degree. Simply such and such courses are announced in advance for a given semester. A professor chooses for himself the subjects on which he will lecture, and the student in his turn is at liberty to make his selection from the courses offered by the various members of the faculty.

The professor, in the class-room, is free to express his views on the subjects which come within the scope of his department. This remark has more especial reference to subjects such as Philosophy, Political Economy, and Theology, and has no direct bearing on the department of Mathematics, in which, of course, there is no opportunity offered of offending popular prejudices, vested interests, or those in authority. It has, however, an indirect bearing on other departments, also, inasmuch as it is indicative of the spirit which

pervades the work of the University as a whole. This is the spirit whose watchword is intellectual liberty, the spirit which sees in unrestricted research the surest means of arriving at the truth. This spirit is closely allied with the idealism which justifies the pursuit of truth for its own sake. It is also intimately related to that scientific tolerance which sympathizes with the efforts of the individual to work out his intellectual salvation in his own way and which manifests itself in the free rein given to both student and professor in the selection of their work.

The four faculties of Philosophy, Theology, Medicine and Law, are represented in the German Universities. The philosophical faculty corresponds to our faculty of Arts. The University staff is divided into three categories, known as ordinary professors, extraordinary professors, and *privatdocents* respectively. It is not to be supposed from their title that the extraordinary professors are more important personages than the ordinary professors. They might be said, in fact, to correspond to our associate professors, so that we may refer to the three categories as professors, associate professors, and *privatdocents*. We have nothing corresponding to the last-named class in our system. To the consideration of this class I shall return later on.

Each of the four faculties has its Dean, and the University as a whole is presided over by a Rector. These officials are professors who are elected by their fellow-professors and hold office for one year. There is no permanent head to the University corresponding to the President of an American University. The position of Rector requires no special executive abilities and the professors feel themselves free to bestow it on any one of their fellows whom they desire to honor. The Rector on state occasions wears knee-breeches and covers his scholarly form with a gorgeous mantle. He is then officially known, at least in the case of the University of Berlin, by the high-sounding title of "His Magnificence." Whether he bears this title in the smaller Universities also I do not know.

There are some twenty-two Universities all told in Germany, varying from the little University with a few hundred students and a small faculty, up to the University of Berlin, with a faculty numbering four hundred and an attendance of more than five thousand matriculated students. Besides the matriculated students there are also others called *Hospitanten*, who for sufficient reasons obtain permission to hear certain lectures, it being necessary to renew the permission with the beginning of each semester. These,

in the case of the University of Berlin, are almost as numerous as the matriculated students, so that the total attendance on lectures at that University is between ten and eleven thousand.

There is no examination for matriculation, but the qualifications therefor on the part of a German student require graduation from one of the higher secondary schools. With foreigners the University authorities are sufficiently lax, and are always ready to stretch a point in the interpretation of the diplomas or other papers on the ground of which a candidate may ask to be matriculated. In the case of the University of Berlin, the foreigner must also produce a passport which he leaves in the custody of the University together with the papers just mentioned. In place of these documents he receives a student's card. Everyone in Germany is supposed to possess papers which will serve to identify him if he is called upon by the police to produce them. In the case of a student such papers are replaced by his student's card. After matriculating the student shakes hands with the Rector of the University, receives his student's card, and is ready to reconnoitre. He has in his hand the *Verzeichniss der Vorlesungen*, as it is called, or list of lectures, for the semester just beginning. As has already been said, there is no such thing as a fixed curriculum. There is simply the list of lectures offered by the various professors, which varies from semester to semester and from year to year.

The academic year, it may be remarked, is divided into two terms or semesters, called respectively the winter semester and the summer semester. The winter semester commences officially on October 15th, and closes the 15th of March. The summer semester begins officially on the 15th of April and ends on August 15th. To obtain the actual length of the academic year it is necessary to clip off about two weeks from each end of each semester, for the lecturers begin late and close early.

For six weeks after the official opening of the semester everyone is at liberty to browse about and visit what lectures he will. At the end of that period, however, he must have decided on the courses which he wishes to take and must pay his fees for the same. In general a course on a given subject will count four lectures a week, and each such course will cost the student five dollars for the semester. Where a course includes only two lectures a week, the price is one-half. In the case of lectures illustrated by experiments the fee is just double of what it would be for the same number of lectures on a purely theoretical subject. Here

and there in the list of courses there are also to be found ones that are gratis.

When the student has decided on the courses which he desires to take he enters them in his *Anmeldebuch*, a blank form with which he has been furnished by the University, and repairs therewith to the registrar's office where they are noted in the registers. At the same time he pays his bill and receives receipts for the separate lectures, which he conveys to the proper professors, who in their turn collect the moneys in question from the University; for each professor, in addition to his salary, receives the fees of his students. There is no controlling of a student's attendance on his lectures. He can come or stay away as he pleases. In Germany, as elsewhere, not all the students are models of industry. The lazy student, however, is not likely to enrol himself in the department of Mathematics and consequently does not concern us here.

Besides the lectures, there is the seminary for the more advanced students. This meets once a week and its proceedings are conducted by one of the professors, or it may be by a couple of professors conjointly or by several of them week about. The work of the mathematical seminary varies greatly, depending for its character on the individual professors in charge. The work that is to be undertaken by the seminary is in general decided on at the beginning of the semester. It may be suggested, among other things, that it is desirable to have some account of a certain subject which is not handled in the regular University lectures. A number of students may volunteer, and the work is divided among them. They are referred to the original memoirs and have to report to the seminary in a series of lectures prepared on the subject. Or it may be that reports are asked for on notable memoirs in diverse mathematical branches. One student, perhaps, will be asked to review some book, and to another will be assigned a problem for solution. The problems proposed in the seminary may be of a simple character, or they may happen to be quite difficult. Occasionally an unsolved problem is thrown in among the members in order to give the ambitious student something to nibble at. A seminary meeting lasts about two hours. Several of the members may speak at the same meeting, or the same speaker may absorb the complete time of one or more meetings. The professor in charge will here and there make comments on the matter presented by the speaker, and may also correct defects in his manner of presentation. Opportunity is afforded those present to ask questions or make suggestions.

I have myself heard some admirable lectures on difficult subjects delivered by students at these seminary meetings.

While I was at the University of Berlin one of the mathematical professors held what he called a Colloquium every two weeks. This, however, was of very much the same nature as a seminary. The only difference that I noticed was that in the Colloquium the whole semester was spent on a single memoir or on several shorter memoirs all bearing on the same subject, and that on the conclusion of the scientific session the professor with his students repaired to a neighboring restaurant, where they had supper and took a social glass of beer together. Though the latter feature did not find itself combined with the seminary at Berlin, it would not appear to be incompatible with it. It is doubtful, indeed, if there be anything in Germany with which it would be incompatible. During my stay in Göttingen I found that the professor who conducted the mathematical seminary there had the kindly custom of inviting its members to sup with him at his home from time to time, on which occasions a keg of beer was broached and a pleasant social evening was spent together. It will be seen that the German professor comes into pretty close contact with his students. Familiarity in this case, however, does not breed contempt, and the German professor is invariably respected by his pupils. In this connection it may also be remarked that the most perfect order is maintained in the class-rooms and corridors of the University. The idea of playing any prank in the precincts of the University never seems to enter into the heads of the students.

Another institution which is to be mentioned in connection with the department of Mathematics is the mathematical *Verein*. This is not so restricted in its membership as the mathematical seminary, and counts on its rolls the majority of the mathematical students in attendance at the University. Its meetings take place once a week and are held in the evening—not in the University buildings, but at some restaurant. The early part of the evening is devoted to business and to the reading and discussion of a paper on some mathematical subject. The rest of the evening is devoted to conversation, to the inevitable beer, and to the singing of student songs. The *Verein* also has its special festive occasions. From time to time the older men, who in former years have been members of the *Verein*, are invited to join the younger members in a social evening. At Berlin the younger and older men unite to hold an annual picnic. They also have a Christmas celebration, which is

quite entertaining. The members of the mathematical faculty and other guests are invited. A Christmas tree is one of the features of the evening, and Christmas gifts, mostly of a grotesque character and often conveying some personal but good-humored thrust at the recipient, are distributed to the professors who are present and to the members of the *Verein*. The programme as a rule includes also a short play or farce, with members of the *Verein* as the actors. On one occasion, for example, when the speaker was present, the play had for its subject the woes of a mathematical professor in China under the *régime* of an emperor who had decreed that henceforward two and two should make three instead of four. The play was written by one of the students, and the various situations which it offered gave opportunity for hits at the idiosyncracies of different members of the mathematical faculty.

The student of Mathematics in Germany has, as we see, his hours of relaxation. On the whole, however, he takes his work seriously. He is, as a rule, preparing for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, and is probably looking forward to teaching in a gymnasium. The single examination on which his degree depends, it may be, is still at a distance, and there is no immediate stimulus to exertion if the work offers no attraction to him for its own sake. There is no term examination awaiting him and there are no yearly examinations. There is nothing to encourage cramming; in fact, it would hardly be practicable, for no text-books are assigned and he is entirely dependent on the lectures. We have seen that his personal predilections are considered in the liberty allowed him in choosing his lectures. He is free to follow any natural bent, and knows that whatever he may do inside his department will not be lost even from the point of view of passing a creditable examination. He has to discover a suitable theme for a dissertation, and he himself chooses the subjects on which he will be examined. These have, of course, to be approved of as covering a sufficiently wide field in his department of study. He is also free to select his own examiners, in so far as the number of professors in the department in which he is to be examined admits of a selection.

All candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy must undergo an examination in Philosophy. Besides this and in addition to his major subject, he will have one or two minor subjects. The mathematical candidate is only required to take one minor. He will have then to undergo an examination in Mathematics, Philosophy and his minor subject. In his principal department, at

least at the University of Berlin, he will have to select two examiners, and a single examiner in each of the other two departments. The regulations fix a certain minimum number of lectures for which the candidate for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy must have registered during his course, and also fix a minimum of six semesters during which the candidate must have been in attendance at the University. Exceptions are made in favor of foreigners who have already taken University courses outside of Germany. In the department of Mathematics it rarely happens that a German student takes his degree at the end of six semesters. As a rule he will follow lectures for ten or twelve semesters, and some of them even take fourteen semesters to it. They are also not by any means the slower students who take the longer time.

A student may have distributed his time among a number of Universities. He can take his examination at any one of these, or he is at liberty, if he will, to take it at a University at which he has not heard a single lecture. It is as though a student were free to choose his mathematical examiners from among the mathematicians of Germany. The examinations in the different Universities are not equally searching, nor is one University always as exacting as another in regard to the dissertation. It is the dissertation, in general, which causes the most solicitude to the candidate for the Doctor's degree. This must be accepted before he can undergo his examination. It will likely cost him months of labor, and will possibly eat up the major portion of a year. Its subject may be one selected by himself, or it may have been suggested by some one of the professors to whom, in the lack of a suitable theme, he has had recourse. It may be returned to him several times over for further elaboration, and possibly it is finally rejected. Under such circumstances, the student will sometimes betake himself to another University which is reputed to be less exacting in its requirements. I have known students in the department of Mathematics at the University of Berlin who found themselves in these straits, and who forthwith conveyed their unappreciated manuscripts to a certain other University where they were accepted without difficulty, and where the candidates underwent their examinations and received the Doctor's degree without hearing a single lecture.

After the acceptance of his dissertation the candidate may have to wait several weeks before a date is fixed for his examination. He selects his examiners, as has already been remarked, and

informs each of them as to the particular branches of his subject on which he is prepared to be examined. The examination is a purely oral one. According to his standing on the same, the candidate who passes receives one of four *predicates*, as they are called. The first and highest of these predicates is entitled *summa cum laude*; then come in order the predicates *magna cum laude*, *cum laude* and *sustinuit*. The last of these signifies little more than that the candidate has not been plucked. The predicates on the examination are assigned quite independently of the quality of the candidate's dissertation, which receives a predicate on its own account.

It is rarely that the degree of Doctor of Philosophy is accompanied by the predicate, *summa cum laude*. During the five years that the speaker passed at the University of Berlin no candidate in Mathematics received this predicate. Like most examinations, the German University examination does not furnish a sure criterion as to the capacities or attainments of a candidate. By it, however, he will not ultimately be judged, but by his productivity in his department.

After his dissertation has been accepted and he has passed his examination, the candidate still has a form to go through before receiving his degree. This is the so-called "Promotion." There was a time, no doubt, when this form had a meaning of its own. It, however, possesses no longer other than a traditional significance, though it may, upon occasion, be a little picturesque, and furnishes an excuse for the public, and more ceremonial, conferring of the Doctor's degree. On a certain date the candidate proposes to defend his dissertation from the attacks of opponents who may present themselves, and at the same time undertakes to maintain the truth of certain theses which he propounds, and which are selected from the departments in which he has been examined. These disputations were at one time conducted entirely in Latin, but in the case of scientific students German is now made use of. They are open to the public, who, however, do not to any extent avail themselves of the privilege. Everything is cut and dried beforehand. The candidate selects his own opponents—three or four in number. These are in general fellow-students, though, if he will, the candidate is also free to select them outside University circles. To each one of these is allotted one of the theses, and the objections which he is to make to the thesis in question are agreed upon between him and the candidate, or it may be that the

candidate himself prepares the arguments to be advanced against his theses, and hands them to his opponents. On the day of the Promotion the opponents in succession present their objections to the theses of the candidate, and the latter, alternating with them, responds to each opponent in his turn. He points out to the opponent that he has misapprehended the intention of the thesis, and explains more fully his position in the matter. The opponent lends a careful ear to what he says, admits the justness of the candidate's remarks, confesses that his own position is untenable or that he had misinterpreted the wording of the thesis, and resumes his seat. During the disputation the candidate stands facing his opponents with his back toward a raised platform, on which the Dean of the faculty now takes his place. Having disposed of all his opponents in the manner just described, the candidate turns to the Dean and, in a Latin formula, demands the Doctor's degree in virtue of his having defended his dissertation and sustained his theses against his opponents. The Dean responds in the same language, the candidate mounts the steps leading to the platform and receives his diploma. The ceremony is over, the erstwhile candidate is now Doctor and receives the congratulations of his friends.

A large proportion of those who take the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, as has already been indicated, expect to become teachers in the gymnasia. To be eligible for such a position, however, one has to pass a special teachers' examination. A teacher in a gymnasium who has particularly distinguished himself will sometimes be called to a University chair. He may, however, be named Professor while retaining his position as a gymnasium teacher. The appellation Professor in Germany is a title bestowed by the State, and is jealously guarded by the law, no one who is not entitled thereto being permitted to assume the title. A barber or patent medicine vendor who presumed to call himself Professor would be punished by the courts.

Though a number of the University professors have at one time been teachers in the gymnasia, the great majority of them have been recruited from another source. A student on receiving the Doctor's degree does not necessarily take his departure from the University. He has probably heard only a portion of the lectures offered in his department, and he can also profit by continuing to take part in the work of the seminary. In the meantime he is reading on his own account. He has perhaps established himself

in some special branch of Mathematics, and begins to be productive. Possibly he does not remain at the University where he took his degree, but attaches himself to some other University. His ultimate ambition is to become a professor. To this end he will by-and-bye ask permission to qualify as *privatdocent*. His application must be accompanied by original work. This is the important thing. He must also deliver two lectures, one before the faculty, the other a public one to the students. This, however, is a mere form; everything depends on the character of the work which has been handed in. If this is favorably regarded, the candidate will be admitted to the rights and privileges of a *privatdocent*. The privilege of a *privatdocent* it is to make use of the classrooms of the University, and he has the right, like any other member of the faculty, to collect fees from those students who are attracted to his lectures. He does not, like them, receive an additional salary. The fees of a mathematical *privatdocent* are not likely to make a fat pocket. He is free, however, to lecture on what subjects he will, and has a chance to shew his mettle.

The appointment as *privatdocent* implies no guarantee of future promotion. His only claim to recognition must be based on the original work which he does. The *privatdocent* knows this and takes his risks. He exerts himself to the utmost to produce something that will secure him recognition in the mathematical world. As a young man he is, of course, optimistic, and his expectations may be doomed to disappointment. A check on disproportioned ambition, however, is exerted at the outset in the fact that only men of promise are permitted to qualify as *privatdocents*.

If in the sequel his work succeeds in attracting the attention of mathematicians his advancement will likely follow. He may be promoted in the University where he has begun as *privatdocent*, or what is perhaps more commonly the case, he will receive a call from some other University. Everything depends on his mathematical productivity—whether he remains a *privatdocent* or becomes an associate professor, whether or not he attains to a full professorship, and also, to some extent, whether he is located in a small University or occupies a chair in one of the larger Universities. The last statement, however, must not be taken to mean too much, for a strong man will often complete his days as professor in a small University. Such a man will sometimes make a reputation for his department in the University where he is located. It may be that through a combination of circumstances he has not received a call

to one of the larger Universities, or it may be that he has received such a call and declined it.

The system has its hardships, no doubt, for individuals, but, in the case of the mathematical department, at least, it has certainly resulted in filling the German University chairs with men of a very superior scientific type. A *privatdocent* will sometimes remain a *privatdocent* all his life, in which case his lot is a hard one unless he happens to possess private means. It may be that he has fallen on evil days—i.e., days evil for him—in which he has to compete with men of unusual brilliancy, or he may have had the misfortune to specialize in some branch which turns out to be unprofitable. I remember at a certain University two men who had been so stranded.—They are both since dead.—The one of these was a man of about eighty years of age. He was feeble and hard of hearing and in an assemblage was isolated from the others, presenting a lonely and rather pathetic figure. His lectures were still announced in the *Verzeichnis* but his hearers were not numerous. In his younger days he had written several text-books which were very well spoken of and had also done some work of a higher order. He had as his contemporaries, however, a generation of exceptionally gifted mathematicians, and in the struggle for survival it was not unnatural that he should go under. The other *privatdocent* in question was a man of perhaps fifty years of age. In his earlier days he had devoted himself to quaternions when this subject appeared to have a future. It does not, however, seem at any time to have found great favor in the eyes of German mathematicians, nor, in fact, does it appear to have appealed to continental mathematicians in general. It has not had the future that was anticipated for it by its British friends, and as a subject of study has dropped somewhat into the background even in Great Britain. The man, then, who had devoted himself exclusively to this subject in Germany, had made an error in his reckoning and was already lost in advance.

It might be thought that the institution of the *privatdocent* would afford an economical government the opportunity of economizing in the matter of salaries. It is, however, explicitly understood that in reckoning the efficiency of the faculty for its work the *privatdocents* are not to be taken into account. For that purpose they are to be regarded as supernumeraries. Not only are they free to choose the subjects of their lectures, but they are also at liberty to announce no lectures whatever if they will.

As to salary, the University professor in Germany, as elsewhere, cannot be regarded as overpaid. In the University of Berlin the salary of the full professor begins with twelve hundred dollars and gradually increases to eighteen hundred. In the smaller Universities the salaries are somewhat less. In addition to the salary, however, we must also count the fees in estimating a professor's income. The revenue from this source varies greatly with the professor's department and with the number of students who follow his lectures or work in his laboratory. Occasional professors in certain of the departments at the University of Berlin will have incomes equal to, and perhaps even larger than, the largest salaries paid to professors in American Universities. On the average, however, the incomes of University professors in Germany, arithmetically regarded, are considerably smaller than the salaries paid professors in the larger Universities in America. If, on the other hand, we compare the income of the professor in Germany with the pay of men in other walks of life, his remuneration is relatively much higher than that of his brother in America. Furthermore the German University professor on growing old or becoming incapacitated through other causes, can be retired on his own request, but will continue to draw his salary as usual.

A single eminent professor, as has already been remarked, may make the mathematical reputation of a small University. The small University cannot hope to rival the larger Universities in the variety of the courses which it offers. Whatever it has to offer, however, is rendered available by the migratory habits of the German student. The German Universities, both large and small, may be said to supplement one another in their work. Not even the largest Universities are equally strong in all the diverse branches of Mathematics. For example, Berlin's *forte* is analysis and the man who wishes to specialize in Geometry would have to supplement the work obtained there by attendance of lectures at some other University,—for instance, at Göttingen, Leipzig or Strassburg. Not that the subject is utterly ignored at Berlin, for there is a course in Synthetic Geometry and several courses are offered in Analytical Geometry,—but, apart from a single associate professor, the special interests of the several members of the faculty all lie in other directions.

It has already been indicated that the courses offered by a given professor vary from semester to semester, and it may here be further pointed out that they in general constitute a cycle covering

perhaps four or six semesters and repeating themselves after that period, though often with considerable modifications. This, however, is not always the case and there are some professors the subjects of whose lectures constitute an irregular succession, changing from semester to semester and offering no periodic law. It is seldom that a professor of Mathematics lectures on more than two subjects contemporaneously, and it sometimes happens that, for the time being, he devotes himself to a single subject only. From this it follows that the lecturer is able to concentrate himself more completely on the one or two subjects with which he is concerned,—to live himself into them one might say.

The fact that a professor does not have to repeat the same course every year enables him to touch on a larger number of subjects than would otherwise be the case and also, what is probably of more importance, to offer more extended courses on the subjects in which he is more especially interested. This affords the lecturer the opportunity to give a more adequate presentation of his subject, by which is not meant that he spends his time on incidentals or makes excursions into side issues. On the contrary he follows the main line of thought on which depends the unity of the subject. Fundamental principles are emphasized, no necessary logical step in a process is omitted, no difficulty is slurred over. The capable student who has assimilated the matter offered, is likely to have a clear idea as to the general methods and objects of the subject in question; he will be in a position to read further on the subject on his own account and will feel a justifiable self-confidence in his own ability to criticize and estimate what he reads.

To give some suggestion as to the scope of the mathematical work in a larger German University, it might be useful to mention some of the principal courses offered at the University of Berlin in the time during which the speaker attended lectures at that University. These included single semester courses of four hours a week on each of the subjects, *Algebraic Functions of One Variable*, *Algebraic Functions of Two Variables* and *Theory of Algebraic Numbers*, by Professor Hensel. The matter of these courses, it may be remarked, was essentially work original with the lecturer. The more important courses given by Professor Frobenius were on the *Theory of Numbers* and the *Theory of Equations* respectively, each of these courses covering two semesters and counting four hours a week. Professor Fuchs in his lectures confined himself almost exclusively to the *Theory of Functions* and

the *Theory of Differential Equations*, giving on each of these subjects a course of four hours a week extending through four successive semesters. The first semester in the former of the two courses was devoted to the general theory of functions, the next two semesters to the elliptic, and the fourth semester to the Abelian functions. In the course on the differential equations, the second and third semesters were almost wholly taken up with Professor Fuchs' own famous investigations in the theory. Courses of four hours a week throughout the year on the *Calculus*, were given by Professor Schwarz and other members of the faculty turnabout. The most interesting courses by Professor Schwarz, however, were those on the *Calculus of Variations* and the *Theory of Functions*. The former was a single semester course of four hours a week, the latter a course of the same extent as that of Professor Fuchs on the same subject, but divided between the general theory and the theory of the elliptic functions, without touching upon the Abelian functions. The subject was treated from completely different standpoints by the two lecturers. In addition to the above courses there was a multitude of other courses, some of them two semester courses, but the majority of them single semester courses of two or four hours a week on a great variety of diverse topics.

It will be noticed how strongly the *Theory of Functions* is represented in the courses explicitly mentioned above. If all the courses on the *Theory of Functions* offered at the University of Berlin during the period to which I have reference, were placed end to end, it would take a student more than six years at four hours a week to hear them all. Particular stress was laid on the *Theory of the Elliptic Functions*, in which, besides the courses by Professors Fuchs and Schwarz already referred to, a third course of equal length was given by Professor Knoblauch. All three courses, however, were entirely different from one another, and viewed the subject from different standpoints, so that it repaid a student to hear more than one of them.

The student of Mathematics in a German University is, of course, not expected to hear all the lectures given in his department. It might be remarked, however, that it is not unusual for a student to hear the same course, or a portion of the same course, twice over. To encourage this the fee is remitted for the second hearing. A member of the Faculty of the University of Berlin told me that he had heard Weierstrass' lectures on the *General Theory of Functions* three times over and had profited by them each time.

I have spoken of Professor Schwarz's lectures on the *Theory of Functions* and the *Calculus of Variations*. They are practically a reproduction of Weierstrass' lectures on these subjects, and are, I may say, the most impressive lectures I have ever had the good fortune to listen to. The lectures of the first semester in the course on the *Theory of Functions* are devoted to the general theory, and are accompanied by an admirable course of two hours a week on the *Theory of the Complex Number* as developed by Weierstrass, in which the student is supplied with a sure basis for all his future dealings with number. In the second semester begins the treatment of the elliptic functions, and the power of mind deployed by Weierstrass in the development of the theory is something prodigious. The march of his intellect is like that of a conquering army bearing down everything before it. The task which he sets himself would make the ordinary mathematician stand aghast, and there is something imposing in his progress as he marches forward from difficulty to difficulty, compelling all things to his ends and approaching in triumph the goal between which and himself no obstacle interposes an effective bar. It is with a thrill of admiration that the listening student at some critical point in the argument realizes how his genius has overcome an apparently insurmountable barrier, and he leaves the class-room with a sort of feeling of reverence for the huge intelligence whose powers in the domain of intellect seem to be so illimitable. How must it have been a few years before when Weierstrass himself communicated his thoughts at first hand to his pupils? What a compliment it was for one of the greatest thinkers of the nineteenth century to make them his confidants, to communicate to them, and to them only, certain of his discoveries, for many of his greatest discoveries were never published, but simply given to his classes, nor in the case of these discoveries does he seem to have made other provision for their being handed down to posterity.

As to the course on the *Calculus of Variations* referred to above, Weierstrass' development of the subject is something masterly. I have never heard lectures in which one got such an inkling as to the methods and workings of a great mathematical mind, and yet it would seem to be but a chance that he ever gave these lectures. It is said that he was asked by his students, now about a quarter of a century ago, to give them a course on the *Calculus of Variations*. He consented, and proceeded to develop the subject for them along the orthodox lines. At a certain point in the development he

recognized the inadequacy of the argument which had hitherto been accepted by mathematicians. He corrected the deficiency, rebuilt the subject from the beginning and replaced the old theory with its clumsy notation and faulty reasoning by a more elegant one, leaving in the recreated theory a beautiful and symmetrical monument to his own mighty mathematical genius. The notes of his pupils on this, and on other subjects, have strayed from hand to hand, and copies of them have been taken by various mathematical men, but even yet they can hardly be said to be the common property of the mathematical world. Weierstrass' works, it may be remarked, are being published by the Academy of Sciences at Berlin in seven volumes, of which four will be devoted to his lectures, the matter for these being gleaned from the note-books of his former pupils.

Such a man as Weierstrass heaps honor upon the teacher's profession. He may himself be regarded as the type of the ideal teacher, who finds his chief satisfaction in communicating his choicest thoughts to his pupils. There were no petty little jealousies in his make-up, and one of his students told me that it was the delight of the master to find that one of them in some investigation had been able to utilize his own ideas.

Nor is Weierstrass the only great mathematical genius that Germany has produced. During the past century she has given birth to a considerable number of mathematicians who might justly be called great, and among them are several mathematical geniuses of the very first order. As most conspicuous among them in their day and generation we might perhaps name, arranged in chronological order,—Gauss, Jacobi, Dirichlet, Riemann and Weierstrass—all University professors.

Gauss' productive activity extended over the first half of the nineteenth century, and there was hardly a department of Mathematics in which he did not make his influence felt. Not content with a purely mathematical activity he extended his operations also into the fields of Astronomy, and Electricity and Magnetism. He was regarded in his time as a sort of mathematical Jupiter, living and reigning in solitudes beyond the ken of ordinary mortals. In the present day one will sometimes hear him referred to in Germany as the King of mathematicians. He is now dead half a century, and all his work has not been published yet. Its publication in complete form is in the hands of the Academy of Sciences of Göttingen, and of ten volumes three have

yet to appear. Some of his greatest discoveries he had not given to the world. Among these were ones which were rediscovered by other mathematicians, who had no suspicion that they were not the first. Gauss belongs to the class of encyclopædic mathematicians. The later German mathematicians are more specialists. Their productive activity is confined at most to a comparatively limited number of branches of Mathematics.

Jacobi was the first of that modern type of German mathematician who makes his students the confidants of his mathematical discoveries. Often he announced the most important results in his lectures and did not take the time to publish them for the benefit of the rest of the world. He, too, was the originator of the mathematical seminary.

Dirichlet's mathematical productivity found its chief outlets in the Theory of Numbers, and in the department of Mathematical Physics. He, too, was famous for his lectures. It was characteristic of him that he did much of his mathematical work in his head without communicating it to paper. There is reason to surmise that he had perhaps solved the fundamental problem of astronomy, the so-called *Problem of the Three Bodies*. He died, however, without sufficiently indicating his method and astronomers still have to wrestle with the unsolved problem. A second important problem which had been solved by Dirichlet was likely to have shared the same fate. Its solution, however, was rediscovered by Weierstrass and presented to the students of his seminary one afternoon. The mathematician who furnished me with this information was a pupil of Weierstrass'. He had come across the solution among his notes, so he said, and intended turning it over to those who had in charge the publication of Weierstrass' work, lest it should go astray a second time.

The principal field of Riemann's activity was the *Theory of Functions*. His ideas were characterized by their profound originality and, at the same time, by their immense generality. He died in the sixties, but is to be regarded as a contemporary of Weierstrass, who lived to a much greater age. One fair-sized volume is sufficient to contain his collected works. So stimulating, however, were his ideas in their originality, and so prolific in their suggestions, that they, perhaps more than the ideas of any other single individual, are responsible for the productivity of mathematicians during the last three decades of the nineteenth century.

Riemann and Weierstrass were the teachers of the present generation of mathematicians in Germany, and it would be difficult to find one of their pupils who does not bear the distinct impress of at least one of the two masters. In some cases the combined influence of both is discernible.

In addition to what has been already said in regard to Weierstrass, I may further say that he was the incarnation of rigor in his mathematical methods. He demanded perfect precision in the formulation of a problem and absolute rigor in its demonstration, and in this respect his own work might serve as model. To his example, more than to any other, is due the demand in recent years for a more precise presentation of mathematical subjects. In this connection the defective logic of a large proportion of the text-books and mathematical treatises in certain departments has come in for considerable criticism.

It has sometimes seemed to me that a proper spirit in which to read a mathematical text-book in certain branches, would often be one of skepticism, or even wilful antagonism. It is assumed, of course, that the reader keeps his eyes open while following the argument. If, then, in spite of his own determined opposition, he is forced to accept the result of the demonstration, it is likely both that the book is correct and that his own logical faculties are in proper working order, for it is impossible for the intellect to refuse the deductive evidence of logic however one may strive against it. If things do not turn out as favorably as I have supposed them to do, either the demonstration is defective or the reader has failed to see some point in the argument, or both reader and book are at fault. The matter, however, is not helped by the reader following the argument in a conciliatory mood and trying to persuade himself that he understands it. This, I believe, is not an uncommon failing with students, both good and indifferent, for we often enough find those who are honestly convinced that they thoroughly understand everything treated in some text-book, which contains matter which, as there presented, is not to be understood by any normal intellect.

Though the modern mathematical ideals demand absolute rigor in the demonstration of a problem, it is not always possible in a growing subject to immediately satisfy the demand. It sometimes happens that a knotty point in the development of a theory will baffle mathematicians for a long time. Where they have a moral certitude as to their ground, this does not prevent their prosecuting

their researches further. They, however, always work with a consciousness of the "if" that they have left in their rear. They do not relax in their demands for rigor, but frankly admit the defect in the theory and continually return to the attack with ever differing methods, until the difficulty in question is definitively disposed of. Such a difficulty, and a fundamental one, too, it might be remarked, presented itself in connection with one of Riemann's theories, but was afterwards satisfactorily disposed of by Neumann and Schwarz.

For a better estimate of mathematical conditions in Germany and for a more precise appreciation of the make-up of the mathematical faculties at German Universities, it might be useful to distribute mathematicians into several categories :

In the first class or category we might count those supreme geniuses who are characterized by a perpetually creative activity, who are continuously occupied with fundamental difficulties and who are continually solving such difficulties, who revolutionize old subjects and who build up new ones, who, in fact, seem to find themselves at home in almost any department, and as soon as they busy themselves with it begin to be productive in that department.

In the second class also are to be found men possessing an element of genius. They are not, however, men who would feel themselves at home in any department, who, so to speak, would compel the medium in which they might happen to find themselves. They are rather men who have selected for themselves a subject suited to their peculiar bent and who settle down and devote their lives to its development in all its ramifications, who evolve a standpoint peculiar to themselves from which they contemplate the subject, and who develop a theory of their own. In the same category we may also reckon the mathematician who, by a single happy thought, opens up a new and unexplored field, whose discovery perhaps proves to be epoch-making in the history of Mathematics, and in pursuing the consequences of which he spends the rest of his life. Such a happy thought, however, does not happen to come his way a second time. Here, too, we may place the man who, though he does not evolve any theories of his own, nevertheless completes such theories in fundamental points or devises novel methods to meet certain crucial difficulties.

When a theory is well under way, when the fundamental difficulties are overcome, and when its general methods are pretty

well defined, there still remains much work to be done. This work, though essential to the development of the subject, does not for the most part require the genius which was requisite to the formulation of the general theory or to the solution of the first great difficulties, and the men, therefore, who devote their lives to this class of work are not to be reckoned as belonging to either of the first two categories. These men, then, may be said to constitute a third class. They, too, are continuously productive, but not creative in the sense in which the members of the first two classes are creative, though in their work also they find considerable scope for their ingenuity in dealing with the particular problems with which they have to occupy themselves.

In the fourth class we may place those mathematicians who compile in great treatises the work done by mathematicians of the first three classes, and in this same class we might also count those men who, though in some cases, perhaps, possessed of the same natural ability as men of the third class, nevertheless spend themselves in the solution of isolated problems which have no interest beyond themselves, and do not constitute an essential part of some organic whole.

In a fifth class we may include all those mathematicians who, while not furnishing the qualifications requisite to admit them to one of the first four classes, have nevertheless done good service to the cause of Mathematics as writers of text-books or in other ways.

The classification which I have just made is a rather rough one and is, no doubt, incomplete as regards an enumeration of the qualifications that would entitle a man to rank in any given class. There is, also, as a matter of fact, no hard and fast line between any two successive classes. The arrangement, however, will indicate in a general way the order in which mathematical services receive recognition in Germany. Original work is the only thing taken into consideration. The University professors may be said to be recruited altogether from the first three classes, and even among the *privatdozenten* the members of the last two classes are not numerous.

Even in Germany a mathematical genius of the first order is rare. Of the full professors perhaps half may be regarded as belonging to the second class. The rest of them, if we except a possible genius belonging to the first class, would belong to the third class, as would also the bulk of the associate professors.

The last generation of Germans, as we have seen, possessed in Riemann and Weierstrass two mathematicians of the first class. A man of this type has more influence on the rising mathematicians of the country than all the mathematicians of all the other classes combined. At whatever University he may be located, the students flock from the other Universities to hear him, and those who later on develop into mathematicians give evidence in their work of the master from whom they have derived their inspiration. His influence, too, is perhaps more evident in their mode of thought than in the matter with which they occupy themselves.

America has never given birth to a mathematical genius of the first order, and it is not unlikely that the presence of such a man in one of the great post-graduate Universities across the line would revolutionize the mathematical conditions in America. At least that would be the case if his influence on American mathematical students were anything commensurate with the influence of such a man in Germany on the younger generation of mathematicians.

In conclusion, I would say that we are not to judge the German University by the ease or difficulty of its requirements for the Doctorat, but rather by the possibilities which are offered to the student who is capable of availing himself of them. It has taken as its ideal the training of the productive scientist. For this it is important that any original gift with which a young man may happen to be endowed should be encouraged to develop, that nothing should oppose itself to a natural bent, hence the unbounded liberty allowed the student in the selection of his work. To teach the young man how best to develop his talents, how best to become productive, the University collects in its halls all those men of the older generation who have been productive and who in their work and person best exemplify to the student what he is expected to do and to become. These men in the lecture-room reconstruct before him the theories that have already been developed. They bare to him the vital principles on which a theory depends. They insist on fundamentals. In the seminary, under the guidance of these men, the student makes his first weak attempts to walk by himself. He analyzes some theory it may be, or he reconstructs it under the eye of the master for his own benefit and for that of his fellow-students. Later on, in his dissertation, he is thrown entirely upon his own resources. It is his first completely independent attempt, at least upon a more

ambitious scale. It may be weak or it may contain great promise for the future. Thereafter he is left to himself, to stand or fall on his own account, according as he proves productive or turns out to be sterile.

The system, it may be, is less adapted to the weak than to the strong. In the struggle for survival many of the former, no doubt, go under. But that is everywhere the case, only that the strong are drowned along with the weak in a system which allows no free play to the individual. Whatever we may judge of its ideal as such, the German University realizes it in large measure. Its graduates are productive. Through its Universities Germany turns out a larger number of productive scientists in general, and more productive mathematicians in particular than any other country in the world.

HISTORICAL SECTION.

*THE DOMINION OF CANADA AND THE COMMONWEALTH
OF AUSTRALIA—A COMPARISON.*

WILLIAM DALE, M.A., TORONTO.

Of the literary and scientific movements which owe their origin to the two great revolutions of the eighteenth century, the study of what is called constitutional history is by no means the least important. The political and social uprising which we call the French Revolution left behind it as permanent gains for mankind at least three far-reaching principles. The principle of nationality as the foundation of a state received its establishment in the revival of German and Italian unity. The principle of political freedom has gradually spread or is spreading wherever national consciousness exists. The principle of social equality has been recognised as the strongest bond of national union, without which all government is but another name for tyranny. In the evolution of forms of governments and of political institution these principles, never wholly absent, have during the last century exercised enormous influence. But of all actual political creations, none has been more potent than the successful Federalism of the United States. Originating before the French Revolution, but at the time when what are called the principles of the French Revolution had already become the accepted philosophy of the thinkers of the time, the Federation of the United States exemplified to the world in the formation of a new state the principle of nationality, the principle of political freedom, the principle of social equality. Indeed the Anglo-Saxon race, though somewhat contemptuous of theory, has won its great place in the world, because of its possession of the great doctrine of political compromise. Political compromise has enabled Great Britain, and the nations sprung from Great Britain, sometimes with, but more frequently without civil war, to effect whatever political change has commended itself to the saner judg-

ment of the nation. As the latest example of this compromise we have but to notice the Irish Land Bill at the present before the Imperial Parliament, the object of which is to change the Irish people into a nation of peasant proprietors.

But the success of the great experiment of the United States has not failed to produce imitations. On the continent of Europe, Germany, Austria, Switzerland have Federal Governments with certain variations; and within the bounds of the British Empire there now exist the Federations of Canada and Australia or, as they are called, the Dominion of Canada and the Commonwealth of Australia, the distinction of names being perhaps an indication of a certain difference of political thought in 1867 and 1900.

Perhaps the first question to be answered is, what is a Federation or what do we mean by Federalism? In all constitutional questions *i.e.*, in questions relating to the government of states, the first, the essential question to determine is what person or what body of persons possess the sovereignty, *i.e.*, have the final word in deliberation and in action. Where does the actual exercise of power lay? And to answer all fundamental questions of government the most satisfactory method is to refer to the practice of England, or the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, where constitutional precedents have been gradually worked out in a progressive history of a thousand years. Only we must beware of the usage of language. Loyal utterances and legal fictions often obscure the real state of things, the real facts of the case—down even to the beginning of the nineteenth century.

The British monarchy, so far as language is concerned, might have been regarded as a despotic monarchy of the narrowest type. Such things as the will of the people, the supremacy of Parliament, find little countenance, *e.g.*, in Blackstone's Commentaries on the Laws of England. Where then in Britain lies the sovereignty of the State? The answer is that the Parliament, or, more technically speaking, the King in Parliament, possesses the unlimited sovereignty in legislation in the British Empire, meaning thereby that the body composed of King, House of Lords and House of Commons combined possesses absolute supremacy over the Empire. Such is the legal doctrine from which constitutional history, for the Empire to which we belong at any rate, must begin. This doctrine has been impugned on the ground that the will of the people is supreme. It is quite true that the will of the people is supreme. But no law court will or can recognize that will until the King in Parliament

gives it effect by means of a law which every court in the Empire must recognize. And Parliament can thwart the will of the people. It can even lengthen its own existence, as shown by the precedent of the Septennial Act. Is there, then, no check to the power of Parliament? None but common sense, common prudence and that fear of the people which is ever before the eyes of a popularly elected House. Such a concentration of power in one body necessarily precludes what is technically called a constitution. Its power is unlimited. It can alter the most fundamental laws, *i.e.*, the law regulating the succession of the crown, with as much ease as it can grant a charter to a railway company. Thus for Britain there is no distinction between a constitutional law and any other law. Hence it has been said that the British Constitution is not a written constitution. At any rate every part of it is changeable at the will of Parliament and there exists no person or persons entitled to pronounce void any Act of the British Parliament. To use two technical words now coming into use in Constitutional Law, the British Constitution is unitarian, and it is also flexible (Bryce, *Studies in History and Jurisprudence*, I., Essay iii.).

But if we turn from this example of a unitarian and flexible constitution to any example of a Federation, the United States, the Swiss Confederation, the German Empire, our own Dominion, or the Commonwealth of Australia, we find a very different state of matters. For this purpose we need not take into consideration the fact that both the Dominion and the Commonwealth are subordinate to the King in Parliament. What, then, is the case with regard to sovereignty in a Federation? Instead of the powers included under that term being united in one body, we find them divided among several independent bodies, *i.e.*, independent each within its own sphere of action. And the characteristics of modern Federalism are three:

1. The supremacy of the constitution, which must necessarily be written.
2. The distribution of powers between the Union and the States forming the Union.
3. The authority of the judiciary which is necessarily entitled to pronounce on the constitutionality of Acts of legislation.

From this distribution of powers several consequences follow. A Federation involves a certain element of weakness which might amount to a paralysis of government. The Senate of the United States can say No in regard to all legislation, in regard to all

matters of finance, in regard to every appointment made by the President and in regard to all the foreign affairs of the nation, while all the responsibility for carrying on the government rests with the President and his Cabinet: a state of things likely to lead to curious results in time. But again, a Federation tends to produce a certain conservative spirit owing to the difficulty of altering the constitution. The constitution tends to become sacred, from the difficulty of conciliating all the interests involved in any change.

But thirdly, owing to the distribution of the powers of sovereignty, while all Federations have certain common characteristics, no two Federations are alike. Different bodies possess different powers, and in the case of the Dominion and the Commonwealth we have also to bear in mind the unlimited sovereignty of the Imperial Parliament. The first point we may notice is the difference of names. The Dominion is a federation of Provinces; the Commonwealth is a federation of States. The prominence of what is known as "state rights," or here in Canada as "provincial rights," is more pronounced in the Commonwealth. In both Federations the provinces or states are closely connected by locality, by history, even by race—with more divergence in the case of Canada—so that they bear the impress of a common nationality.* At any rate, these bonds of union, together with the fact of a common subjection to the same sovereign, warrant the assumption of a foundation for a common nationality. But it may perhaps be questioned whether a real nationality is possible apart from complete political independence. Time only can solve the question. One may imagine how the question could be solved by some sort of Imperial Federation. But complications of government may render a practical solution impossible for human powers. Again, in both countries we find the existence of what may be called the Federal sentiment among the people, a desire, that is, for *union* for certain purposes of a common nature, but not a desire for complete *unity*; a desire, that is, for national union and power and an organ to express such union along with a desire to maintain state rights. The contrivance of Federalism aims essentially at the reconciliation of these two apparently divergent desires. Hence in both Federations—Canada and Australia—we find, with some not unimportant differences, the three common features of every form of fully developed Federalism.

1. The supremacy of the Constitution.

2. The distribution among legislative bodies with limited and co-ordinate authority of the different powers of government.

3. The authority of the Courts to act as interpreters of the Constitution.

We may now proceed to note some of the specific differences in the two Federations, differences which are generally owing to some peculiar historical development, either of race or government; or it may be to some geographical or even climatic reason. To trace out all these differences would be an interesting study, but too lengthy for this paper. As to the Federal Government both Canada and Australia possess the three branches of Parliament—the King, represented by the Governor-General, who is appointed by the Crown; the Senate, representing the States or Provinces, whose members in Canada are appointed for life by the Dominion Government—a method not without disadvantages, and whose numbers bear a certain relation to the population of the Provinces; in Australia the number of the Senators from each State is the same, are elected by each State for a definite period, and retire in rotation a third at a time; the House of Commons in Canada and the House of Representatives in Australia form the third branch, the members of which are elected for five years in Canada and for three in Australia. The number of members in Canada is alterable after each decennial census in accordance with the alteration in the population, the standard being determined by the population of Quebec whose representatives remain fixed at sixty-five. In Australia the proportionate representation in any State in either House cannot be altered unless the majority of the electors voting in that State approve of the change. Under certain circumstances the Australian Federal ministry can dissolve the Senate as well as the House of Representatives. In Canada there is no means of avoiding a deadlock between the two chambers; in Australia in such a case the two chambers meet as one and vote as one body. Both Federations possess parliamentary executives formed on the model of the Imperial Ministry, a circumstance in which both have departed most widely from the common model of both, viz., the Federalism of the United States.

But no Australian Minister can hold office for more than three months unless he becomes a Senator or a member of the House of Representatives. Probably the two Federations differ most widely in the matter of amendment of the Constitution. In Canada such an amendment, with but little exception, must be accomplished by the British Parliament passing an amendment to the British North America Act of 1866. This rigidity is tempered in three ways in

Australia. The Commonwealth Parliament can legislate on many topics which are beyond the competence of the Dominion Parliament; on many topics again the Federal Parliament and the States' Parliaments have concurrent jurisdiction, though, in case of conflict, Federal law prevails. Again, many articles of the Commonwealth Constitution remain in force only "until Parliament otherwise provides," and thus can be dealt with in the ordinary way by a simple Act of Parliament. Again, the Commonwealth Constitution embodies the principle of the Referendum, which is broadly speaking as follows: A law to change the Constitution must be passed by an absolute majority of each House of Parliament; it must then be submitted to the electors of the Commonwealth; then, if in a majority of the States a majority of the electors voting approve the law and also a majority of all the electors voting approve the law, it must be submitted to the Governor-General for the King's assent; and on receiving the due assent becomes, like any other bill, an Act of Parliament. By these methods the Constitution of the Commonwealth appears to be the most flexible of all Federalisms yet formed. Many other differences might be gathered from the two Imperial Acts. While both Federations are determined to maintain the existing relation with the Mother Country in the matter of appeals to the Judicial Committee of the Privy Council, the Commonwealth has more jealously restricted the right than the Dominion, and rightly in my opinion. Again, the Crown can veto any Bill passed by the Dominion Parliament, and the Dominion can veto any Bill passed by a Province: The Federal Government of Australia has no veto power against the States, while the Crown can veto equally the legislation of the Commonwealth and the States. Again, the Dominion Government appoints and can dismiss any Lieutenant-Governor of a Province; in the Commonwealth the Governors of the States are appointed by the Crown, as was the case before Federation. The broad result is that the sovereignty of the Imperial Parliament is untouched both in Canada and Australia, and one marked result of Federation in both countries has been a noticeable growth of Imperial sentiment and loyalty, which is also partly the result of that conservatism which belongs to the nature of all rigid constitutions. It will be seen that a very noticeable feature of the Australian Federation is the jealous retention of state rights, the Federal Government possessing only those definite powers which are conferred upon it by the Commonwealth Act. From the fore-

going remarks it is evident that in order to understand the principles which, under a given system of Federalism, determine the division of authority between the nation on the one hand and the States on the other, we have to examine the following points:

1. Whether it is to the national Government or to the States to which belong only "definite" powers, *i.e.*, powers specifically assigned to it under the Act of Federation.

2. Whether the enactments of the national Legislature can be by any tribunal or authority either nullified or treated as void.

3. Whether and to what extent the national Government can control the legislation of the separate States.

4. What is the nature of the body (if such there be) which possesses authority to amend the Constitution.

There is now no lack of material for the study of Federalism as a form of constitutional government. The amazing development of the United States, the progress of Germany, the success of Switzerland and the Dominion, the happy inauguration of the Australian Commonwealth, which from present indications is likely to have its day of trial in the near future, have provided such an abundance of new matter that henceforth the Constitutional Law of Federalism will demand the same scientific precision of investigation which has long marked the study of British Constitutional Law. The British North America Act and its amendments, and the Commonwealth of Australia Act are the foundations for the study of British Federalism or Federalism within the Empire. The works of Professor Dicey and Mr. Bryce supply ample materials for Federalism in general. It is interesting to note that Federalism is also a production of the Anglo-Saxon genius for government.

COMMERCIAL SECTION.

*SOME OF THE ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF
SOME MODERN METHODS IN BOOK-KEEPING.*

ARTHUR S. LAING, ST. CATHARINES.

Book-keeping is the science which enables one to ascertain the nature and extent of one's business and the amount of profit derived therefrom. It is the handmaid of commerce, and without the latter is practically useless and, in fact, impossible. Its origin is very obscure and hard to trace, but recent explorations and excavations seem to prove the fact that in the very earliest times different colored stones, notched sticks, etc., were used to record receipts and expenditures. But book-keeping, as we now understand it, apparently like commerce, took its rise from the shores of the Adriatic, and hence it is described by early authors as the Italian system. It is generally conceded that the first text-book on the subject, embodying the laws of debit and credit, was written by Lucas Borgo in 1495. The first English treatise was published in 1553 by Grafton. The next book appeared in 1559, and from then to the present books on the subject have appeared with increasing frequency, numbering during the nineteenth century over fifty authors. As we would naturally expect, the different systems described gradually became more detailed and systematic, and, in fact, have resulted in our present complex systems, each suited to some particular line of business.

That this specialization should take place is one of the requirements of modern business methods. In the days gone by, not so very long ago either, competition was less keen and business methods not so accurate as at the present day. Each proprietor was able to exercise a personal supervision over his business, and as profits were large and the cost of production less than now, he did not need to estimate his prospective profits so closely as at present. But this condition of affairs has vanished, and in these days of keen rivalry in all lines of business, the methods of finding the profit or loss must of necessity be much more definite than formerly. The question that all business men want an answer to

is, "How much does this article actually cost me, and at what price can I afford to put it on the market with similar goods?" This is what he will expect his superintendent and book-keeper to answer for him definitely and accurately. To do this is one of the chief uses of the newer methods of book-keeping. Another lies in the fact that during the past decade the great tendency in business is to consolidate and combine existing concerns, and where this is not done to enlarge the scope and operations of those already in existence. Hence the work of the book-keeper has been greatly enlarged. This has necessitated the discarding of old methods, by which the ultimate aim could not be achieved, for new and modern ones by which it can be reached.

As we suggested a few minutes ago the objects of commercial book-keeping are: (1) To record the liabilities and assets, gains or losses of an individual, partnership, company, or other corporation. (2) To enable the financial position of the foregoing to be placed before those interested in the concern.

These objects are arrived at by means of the final accounts as prepared from Ledger Balances and known as Trading Accounts, Profit and Loss Accounts, and Balance Sheets. With these statements I do not propose to deal, but will confine myself to some of the different ways in which the material for these is prepared, and shall limit myself still further to two of these:

1. The use of special books, specially ruled for the purpose they are to serve.

2. The use of special devices, such as the loose leaf and card systems. By means of these two, either separate or combined, the results already mentioned are largely attained. We will consider the two separately, and allow me to show you a few of the rulings for some of these books.

CASH BOOKS.

In all forms of this book, one of the most important points to be noticed is the treatment of the Bank Account. You are all, of course, familiar with the ordinary Cash Book, where, if a bank account exists, no record of it is kept except by means of the Bank Pass Book or Cheque Book. All cash paid out by cheque is treated as if the actual cash were paid and no entry is made for deposits. But in many concerns this is wholly inadequate, and the bank account must be kept more systematically. This is generally done by means of the Cash Book, and the following will show a few of the more important ways in which this may be done:

(a) In this form of Cash Book, and, in fact, in all others, the number and use of the special columns on each side must be adapted to the particular business and the number of entries that will occur. A special column may be introduced when there are enough entries to warrant its use.

In this case the bank columns are placed one on each side, that on the left, or debit side, for the cheques issued, and that on the opposite side for deposits. By entering these amounts in the "total" or "sundries" column the cash on hand can always be found.

CASH

BOOK.

Date.	Particulars.	L. F.	Sundries.	C. Sales.	B. Rec.	Bank.	Date.	Particulars.	Fol.	Sundries.	Expense.	Interest.	Bank.
July 31	Cash on Hand	\$ 36 00				July 31	Balance	\$184 36			\$184 36
Aug. 1	Balance in Bank	184 36				Aug. 1	Deposit	300 00			300 00
	Bank—Ch. No. 1	76 00	\$76 00		\$22 50		Telephone	22 50	\$22 50		
	" " No. 2	6 18			6 18		Gas Co.	6 18	6 18		
	" " No. 3	176 00			176 00		Muse. Purchases	219	176 00			
	" " No. 4	226 12			226 12		Bills Payable	150	226 12			
1	Bills Rec. No. 52	100 00		\$100 00		1	Deposit—Note No. 32		100 00			
1	" " No. 53	200 00		200 00		1	Wages		51 00	51 00		
1	J. Smith, on account	59	16 34				1	Jones & Co., on account		96 00	96 00		
	H. Brown, "	74	84 00					Postage		3 00	3 00		
	Cash Sales	68 18	68 18						3 00			
	Balance in Bank	\$1,195 68					Balance in Bank		\$1,176 33	\$85 68	\$1 38	
								" on Hand		152 26	Fol.	Fol.	
Aug. 2	Balance in Bank	\$152 26	\$144 18	\$300 00	\$430 80	2	Balance in Bank		19 35			
	" on Hand	19 35	Fol.	Fol.	152 26	Aug. 2			\$152 26			\$152 26

(b) The bank columns may be reversed so that deposits may be entered on the debit side and the cheques issued on the credit side.

Example.—Same as above, with the bank columns reversed.

(c) Another method is to enter the deposits on the debit side and the cheques on the opposite side, keeping only the cash received and paid out in the cash columns. Posting in this case is done from both the bank and cash columns. The difference between the cash columns is the actual cash on hand. This is a very useful form where the cash has to be balanced daily, and can also be used to verify the bank balance. It may also introduce the use of the distribution Journal for Expense.

CASH						BOOK.				Cr.			
Dr.													
Date.	Particulars.	Fol.	Cash.	B. Rec.	Interest.	Bank.	Date.	Particulars.	Fol.	Cash.	B. Pay.	Expense.	Bank.
Oct.	1 J. Smith, capital acct...	92				\$3,000 00	Oct.	1 Stationery	230			\$15 00	\$15 00
3	C. Sales	00	\$200 00	\$200 50	50	200 00		Office Furniture	201				118 00
3	Bills Rec., No. 12 Dis...	..		217 00	\$4 00	213 00	4	Mdse.—Purchases	92			22 50	1,600 00
5	" " " " " "	19	18 00					Telephone	93				22 50
5	J. Brown, on account	100				218 00	5	Wages	\$218 00			42 50
6	Deposit	02						Petty Cash				25 00
6	C. Sales	..	85 00				8	Bank				500 00
7	G. Robinson, on acct...	..	15 00					B. Payable, No. 2	92		\$500 00		80 00
7	Deposit	..				100 00	9	Rent				80 00
8	C. Sales	..	98 00	80 00			9	J. Smith, on account...	304			36 00	50 00
8	Bills Rec., No. 13	..	80 00	100 00	2 00	98 00	9	Office Books				36 00
9	Deposit	..				178 00	9	F. Jones, on account...	..	178 00			201 84
							9	" " " " " "	..	106 00			178 00
			\$496 00	\$597 50	\$6 50	\$4,007 00	7	Bank Deposit				100 00
				Fol.	Fol.	\$1,392 66			..				
	Balance in Bank							Balance in Bank	\$496 00	\$500 00	\$153 50	\$2,690 34
									..		Fol.	Fol.	1,392 66

DISTRIBUTION JOURNAL—EXPENSE DETAIL BOOK.

[illegible]

(d) For a business using a large number of cheques or keeping more than one bank account the following is perhaps the best system. It is essentially a Cash Book, and when all payments are made by cheque, except petty cash payments, which should be kept in a separate book, the only entries on the credit side will be for exchange and deposits. This left hand side may be ruled as desired. Cheques issued are entered in and posted from the Bank Journal, the form of which is also shown.

In any form of Cash Book where it is necessary to separate accounts into separate Ledgers, it is generally wiser to keep a personal Cash Book, and daily bring the totals into the general Cash Book.

[illegible]

PURCHASES RETURNED.

Date.	From Whom Bought.	Fol.	Amount.	Department to be credited.				
				A.	B.	Etc.	Etc.	Etc.

BILL BOOKS.

This form of Bill Book is much simpler than the form commonly used. The due date is kept in one column. In practical business a diary or "tickler" is kept, this giving the desired information. For posting this form is very convenient, as the account, amount, and discount are all close together. At the end of the month the total is posted to the account in the Ledger. Credit of Bills Payable and debit of Bills Receivable.

BILLS PAYABLE.

Date Issued.	Fol.	To Whom Given.	Amount.	Discount.	Time.	Date.	Due.	Particulars.

BILLS RECEIVABLE.

Date.	Fol.	From Whom Received.	Amount.	Discount.	Time.	Date.	Due.	Particulars.

In the preceding forms I have briefly sketched some of the more generally useful forms of special books. I shall not attempt to describe others equally important, perhaps, in some lines of business, but not of such general use. Amongst these might be mentioned Cost Ledgers, Wages Book, Order Books, Estimate Books, more elaborate forms of Purchase Journals for raw and manufactured goods, more detailed Sales Books, Columnar and Divided Ledgers, etc.

Now let us consider briefly why these books just described have come into such general use :

(1) The information is given in the most concise and systematic manner. Instead of being scattered here and there in different parts of the same book similar transactions are all placed in the same book or divisions of it, thereby grouping all those that are similar.

(2) They result in the saving of an immense amount of work, particularly in a large business where there is a great number of entries to be made. This saving is chiefly in posting, and consequently in Ledger room. Instead of posting each item separately, the totals from the special books and columns are posted to the proper account, resulting in a saving of at least half the work of posting. As a result, accounts that formerly took pages of Ledger room can now be kept on one page for the whole year, thus saving a considerable space and thereby making it possible to use smaller books with the consequent ease of handling.

(3) As the amount of posting is decreased the chance of error making is greatly reduced. Totals are posted instead of separate items, and the work of taking the monthly, half-yearly or yearly trial balance is greatly facilitated. An error is much more easily traced because of the lessened posting, and is, in fact, reduced to a minimum.

(4) A further advantage that applies to many offices is that each clerk may be given sole charge of one book and be held responsible for it; whereas, when all the entries were made in one book, and different clerks were using the same, it became a matter of great difficulty to place the blame for mistakes in the proper place. Now that the work has become more specialized this difficulty practically vanishes.

These are a few of the reasons that have led to the almost universal use of these books in modern book-keeping. And moreover they are of such force with the up-to-date business man that there

is very little danger of their being superseded by any other method of doing the same work.

2. The use of special devices or systems. This naturally divides itself into two parts: (a) Card Systems; (b) Loose Leaf Systems.

Card Systems may be defined as follows: A method of recording, classifying and indexing facts, figures or names of every description by means of cards uniform in size arranged on edge in drawers or trays according to definite order with projecting guides to facilitate reference.

Some of the principal uses of the Card Systems are as follows:

a. The Card Index. With this system you write names or information upon cards instead of in books. You can arrange, add to, take from the cards as you desire. With books you have the same facts upon a page which you cannot tear out so as to classify it. When a name becomes dead you can only scratch it out, and in course of time there is more dead material than live. For instance, if you desire to keep a list of customers you want to solicit business from, you can file the cards behind alphabetical guides, and as new cards are added they can be placed in their proper place. When one of these becomes a customer the card can be transferred to another file, and if they do not their card can be taken out. Similarly the card index can be used for the following:

(1) A record of advertising results can easily be kept. A card is made out for each inquirer for catalogue and prices, and all necessary information recorded thereon. This might include further material sent, from what paper or magazine, or other source the enquiry came, and finally the result—whether a sale was made or not.

(2) To keep a record of a workman's experience, etc.

(3) Location of sales by towns, the reason of such sale or the failure to sell.

(4) For the listing of notes, mortgages, etc.

(5) Keeping track of drawings, patterns, etc.

These are a very few of the many uses to which the card index may be put in the recording of different kinds of information.

b. The Card Ledger. This corresponds to the ordinary Ledger, or the loose-leaf Ledger with which we are all more or less familiar. It consists of a number of cards arranged and indexed in the usual way, and ruled so as to carry the balances forward. This Ledger is especially suitable for keeping a large number of accounts—preferably personal—both payable and receivable. Its great

advantage is the ease of reference, as the account is always in the same place and has not to be transferred from place to place, thus continually changing the index. Another feature peculiar to it is that in posting the card can be taken out and placed directly under the amount to be posted, thus reducing the chance of error in copying figures to a minimum. Another, is that in posting, rendering accounts, and taking the trial balance the cards can be divided amongst different clerks, and the work thus greatly facilitated. Access to the cards may be had without disturbing the book-keeper. Accounts can be divided, if necessary. For example, the suspense and bad and doubtful accounts can be separated from the others without disturbing the whole Ledger.

c. The use of Card Systems in workshop :

The object of workshop records are, in general, the following :

(1) The tracking of the state of progress and cost of products through the factory.

(2) Lessening the cost of production.

(3) Fixing the price at which the finished product may be sold.

To do this the following records must be kept :

(1) Records of orders for work to be done.

(2) Records of labor or work done.

(3) Records of materials—raw, in progress and finished.

(4) Record of establishment charges.

In most up-to-date factories these records are kept by cards specially ruled and adapted for the particular business. By means of these an accurate record can be kept, especially of the finished product—the object most important of all.

ADVANTAGES.

1. By making only one record on each card the number of possible combinations is practically unlimited, and, in addition, except for summary purposes, the record once made serves a variety of purposes without transcription. This unity of record is invaluable for collecting and collating details of cost, both for summary and departmental purposes. The cost of each separate part has been inscribed on a card, and it is a very simple matter to arrive at the total cost.

2. It can be used to advantage in all kinds of business, particularly where there are a number of small accounts, such as those already described, in collecting rents and other collections.

OBJECTIONS.

Card Systems, like all others, are subject to abuses in trying to make them do work they are not intended for. One great fault is the space needed. Still one cabinet, or drawer, more or less, does not make much difference, and if the number of cards is small the drawer of your desk may hold it. The cards may be lost either by the carelessness of the book-keeper himself, or more probably by someone else. This is liable to occur anywhere. The card may easily be changed and another substituted in its place, thus making it easy to perpetrate a fraud.

LOOSE LEAF SYSTEMS.

One of the most recent as well as one of the most interesting developments in book-keeping is the rapid extension of this system. Instead of the many cumbrous books so familiar to book-keepers their place has been taken by the more concise and easily handled loose leaf forms. It is not my purpose to trace the development of this system, but I will rather devote my time to the consideration of the system itself.

As all are probably aware, the system gets its name from the fact that the leaves of the various books, instead of being bound as in ordinary books, are at first loose, and as needed placed in a book and held there by a special locking arrangement. Thus, instead of a book being of a fixed size, it can be added to or taken from, to suit the existing conditions. In this system one of the principal books is the Ledger. In construction it is similar to other books of the same kind. It is indexed by means of leather tabs, and at the beginning of each letter the names that come there are also indexed. Thus the large cumbrous indexes are done away with. If necessary, the Ledger can be sub-divided to suit the extent of the business and number of accounts. When an account becomes "dead" it is removed and placed in a special book. If it becomes active again it can be replaced in the general Ledger.

One of the most general uses to which this system has been put is in the handling of a large number of retail accounts. As all book-keepers know, where there is a numerous list of this class of accounts, it is a big task to get off the monthly statements on time. By the loose leaf method this difficulty is avoided. When a sale is made, the duplicate check made out by the clerk or salesman is handed to the book-keeper, who in turn enters them in the book used for the purpose. By means of a sheet of carbon paper

a duplicate copy is made. At the end of the month the book is loosened and the original statement sent to the customer, and the carbon copy filed for future reference. Before the original is sent out the balance of the account is posted to the account in the Ledger. This saves the work of rendering the account in the old way, of copying the items on a separate bill-head. One of its defects lies in the fact that once the account is rendered it is a good deal of trouble to give the items a second time, in fact, so much so that many book-keepers stamp a notice on the bill requesting the customer to keep the bill, as a duplicate, itemized copy will not be given. But without doubt it saves a great amount of work, particularly where there are a large number of items, as in a grocery or hardware business.

Another part of the same system provides for billing and charging. The invoice is made out in duplicate, one part is sent to the buyer and the other bound by loose leaf binders. From the latter the item is posted to the customer's account, and by means of a recapitulation sheet or sales book the total sales are kept. Invoices received may be treated in a similar manner. Cash Books, and, in fact, all books used in the office may be provided for in a like manner.

One of the chief advantages of this system is the saving of time which is accomplished by its use. There are few progressive business houses that do not use the loose leaf books in some form or other. Some provide their salesmen with order forms that can be instantly bound for permanent preservation. From these the invoices are made out as above indicated. Another saving is in the handling of a big number of retail accounts already touched upon. When the book is loosened several can work at the posting and rendering the accounts, thus making it possible to have the statements ready the first day of each month. This saving of time requires the employment of fewer office hands, thereby reducing expenses. They soon save their greater initial cost, as they are practically permanent, whereas the old style of bound books have to be renewed every two or three years. There is also an economy of space, particularly in the ledger, because in the loose leaf form all the available space is used, where in the old style large spaces may never be filled. There is no danger of the book falling to pieces, as in the case of bound books in use some time. The balance is easier to take because there are no "dead" accounts in the way. In brief these are a few of the reasons that have led to the widespread adoption of this class of book.

In common, however, with all special systems the loose leaf is not perfect, but its virtues more than offset its faults. In the opinion of some auditors it has one disadvantage which, in some cases, does not permit them to recommend its use. This is the liability to fraud which it makes rather easy. It is a very simple matter to take out one sheet and replace it with another which has been altered to suit the purpose intended. In the case of bound books this is not possible, because the pages are numbered consecutively, and if one were taken out it would of course be missed. In the hands of an honest man, however, this does not exist; but the possibility is such that for this reason alone many firms do not adopt the system in its entirety. Then again, the sheets may be mislaid or lost. In some cases this does not matter perhaps, but sometimes it does, as in case a lawsuit depended on it. But where the sheets are numbered before using, and reasonable care is taken, both of these objections do not carry much weight.

Such, in brief, are a few of the modern methods that have served to practically revolutionize the science of Book-keeping in the last few years. If I have made myself clear and paved the way for a discussion of the subject, I shall feel that I have not spent my time or yours wholly in vain.

COMPANY BALANCE SHEETS.

J. W. WESTERVELT, CHARTERED ACCOUNTANT, TORONTO.

Prepare a Manufacturing or Trading Account, Profit and Loss Account, and Statement of Assets and Liabilities from the following information obtained from the books of the Jones Manufacturing Company, Limited, on December 31st, 1902.

Capital	\$150,000	
Sundry Creditors	35,000	
Bank Overdraft	4,500	
Sales Account	200,000	
Reserve Fund for Bad Debts	1,000	
Royalties.....	\$1,000	
Interest	5,600	
Directors' Fees	500	
Expense	2,250	
Salaries	7,000	
Taxes	1,300	
Advertising	1,250	
Coal and Water.....	2,250	
Repairs	4,000	
Carriage in	4,000	
Expenses putting up Machinery sold	8,000	
Wages	59,000	
Purchases	70,000	
Cash.....	500	
Accounts Receivable.....	73,850	
Patents	5,000	
Loose Tools.....	12,500	
Office Furniture.....	2,000	
Stock, January, 1902	45,000	
Patterns	16,500	
Machinery and Plant	44,000	
Real Estate	25,000	
	<u>\$390,500</u>	<u>\$390,500</u>

Write off depreciation from Land and Buildings, 3%; Machinery and Plant, 10%; Patterns, 10%; Patents, 10%; Office Furniture, 5%, and make a provision of 6% on the book value of the Accounts Receivable for discounts and bad debts. On December 31st, 1902, the stock on hand was valued at \$47,500, and the Loose Tools at \$11,500. It is proposed to declare a dividend of 5% and to carry the balance of profits to a Surplus Profits Account.

TRADING ACCOUNT.

This account is a compilation of the different items affecting the cost of the Merchandise, and has closed into it, and appearing on the debit side such accounts as : Purchases (less Discounts and Rebates) and Duty, while on the credit side will appear, under ordinary conditions, Sales (less Discounts and Rebates), and the value of the unsold goods. A comparison of the sides will give the Gross Profit, which is carried to the credit side of the Profit and Loss Account.

In a Manufacturing business the Trading (sometimes called Manufacturing) account would be charged, in addition to the above, with Wages, Coal and Water, Royalties, etc., and the unsold goods would likely be deducted from the Purchases in order that percentages may be obtained.

PROFIT AND LOSS.

Under this heading would be found those items which were in the nature of charge against the general business as distinguished from the cost of production. The Gross Profit, before mentioned, being on the credit side, thus making the difference Net Profit.

APPORTIONMENT OF NET PROFIT.

Into this portion of the Statement the Net Profit finds its way, and there appears here also the disposition of the profit. The Profit and Loss Account as shown in the Ledger would close by the following entry :

Profit and Loss.

To Dividend No. 7.

Surplus Profits.

DEPRECIATION ACCOUNT.

An account into which depreciation on Patents, Patterns, etc. (caused by wear and tear), is carried would be termed "Depreciation Account," and entries would be passed as follows

Depreciation Account.

To Real Estate.

Machinery and Plant.

Patterns.

Office Furniture.

Tools.

Patents.

Profit and Loss.

To Depreciation Account.

In the case of Machinery and Plant, the depreciation is sometimes handled in the following manner :

Depreciation Account.

To Reserve for Machinery and Plant.

Profit and Loss.

To Depreciation Account.

By this plan the original asset is left intact, and a liability created to offset the same. This liability, however, is deducted from the asset instead of being placed among the liabilities.

Profit and Loss.

To Provision for Bad Debts.

This entry will charge the current year with a sum supposedly sufficient to cover any loss the new year may incur on the book value of the Accounts Receivable. As in the case of Machinery and Plant Reserve, this liability is deducted from the asset.

TRADING ACCOUNT.

Stock on hand January, 1902.....	\$45,000	
Purchases	70,000	
	<u>\$115,000</u>	
Less stock on hand December, 1902.....	47,500	
	<u>\$67,500</u>	
Royalties	1,000	
Coal and Water.....	2,250	
Carriage in.....	4,000	
Wages.....	59,000	
Gross Profit to Profit and Loss Account.....	58,250	
	<u>\$192,000</u>	
		<u>\$192,000</u>

Sales	\$200,000
Less expense placing	8,000
	<u>\$192,000</u>

PROFIT AND LOSS.

Interest	\$5,600	
Directors' Fees	500	
Expense	2,250	
Salaries	7,000	
Taxes	1,300	
Advertising	1,250	
Repairs	4,000	
Depreciation—		
Patents	\$500	
Tools	1,000	
Office Furniture	100	
Patterns	1,650	
Machinery	4,400	
Real Estate	750	
	<u>8,400</u>	
Provisions for Bad Debts	4,431	
Net Profit to Apportionment Account	23,519	
	<u>\$58,250</u>	
		<u>\$58,250</u>

Gross Profit from Trading Account	\$58,250
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APPORTIONMENT OF NET PROFIT.

Dividend No. 7	\$7,500	Net Profit from Profit and Loss Account	\$23,519
Surplus Profits	16,019		
	<u>\$23,519</u>		<u>\$23,519</u>

21

BALANCE SHEET.

Liabilities to the Public—			
Creditors	\$35,000	Cash	\$500
Bank Overdraft	4,500	Real Estate	\$25,000
		Less 3%	750
Liabilities to the Shareholders—			
Capital	\$150,000	Machinery and Plant	\$44,000
Dividend No. 7	7,500	Less 10%	4,400
Surplus Profits	16,019	Patterns	\$16,500
		Less 10%	1,650
	<u>\$173,519</u>	Office Furniture	\$2,000
		Less 5%	100
		Tools	\$12,500
		Less	1,000
		Patents	\$5,000
		Less 10%	500
		Accounts Receivable	\$73,850
		Less Reserve	1,000
		Less 6% on Book Value	\$72,850
			4,431
		Stock on hand	68,419
			47,500
	<u>\$213,019</u>		<u>\$213,019</u>

PUBLIC SCHOOL DEPARTMENT.

MORAL TRAINING IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOL.

DR. J. M. HARPER, QUEBEC.

It is a privilege to have the chance of addressing the teachers of Ontario by one, like myself, whose life's work has been for the most part in the neighbouring provinces, though his *alma mater* is amongst you. There is in the air a premonition of an approaching union of all educational interests in the Dominion; at least it may be said that when we meet as teachers or educationists even now, provincial bias seldom steps in to interfere with our deliberations. I may therefore safely accept you all as fellow teachers, bringing greeting to you in the common trend of my words.

A great change has come over the face of our school work even within the last few years. We are beginning to recognise that there is more than theory in our investigations of child nature, more than mere talk, in the old philosophic drawl, about the three-fold character of the child's being. The age is a practical one, restless in its eagerness to find the pleasurable in the exercise of every activity; and we teachers are now no longer content listlessly to hold up as a mere professional article of faith that there are three elements in a child's life and growth, but are ever working out our little and big problems in the school-room,—our problems in class-work, in discipline, in physical, mental and moral maturation,—along this as a momentous line of pedagogic common-sense. The time was when such a thing as even the simplest physical drill in school was flouted as a waste of time, and even yet an odd editor or two will break loose now and again on our more modern methods, by declaring that the pupils have physical exercise enough in the playground to need any inside in the school-room, not knowing the difference between the two. Then the training of the mind not so long ago was a mere memory impressment, in which the other mental faculties took their chance of having their share of train-

ing, alas, in something of a *unhappy-go-lucky* way; and even now, when the principle of having a child trained to speak in the right way in order to have it think in the right way, is universally admitted, I have heard a member of parliament, whose speech was ever bewraying his mental aberrations, and *vice versa*, denounce the later inclinations to make deliberate speakers of young people, in case they should afterwards inflict themselves as a kind of garrulous nuisance on the rest of mankind when they grew up.

And now, when we come to think of our ways as makers of mankind, and feel convinced that there is a necessity lying at our door of treating the third element of child nature in a directly practical way, we are beset on every hand with all manner of difficulties, from the denominational religionist down to the scoffer whose only weapon is the preliminary laugh. In this later campaign in favour of the full rounding out of the methods in behalf of the child, there is, however, no more chance of a halt being called too soon than has been called in the case of an improved physical drill and a more sensible mental training as elements of the school programme. The teacher with his eyes opened by the newer phases and pleadings of pedagogy, sees in the bounteous resources of child energy a something that is not to be repressed as it used to be, but a something to be made the most of, in his striving to find the pleasurable in school work. Mankind, young and old, has ever been after the pleasurable. There is an epicurism even in the most rigid asceticism. And the teacher who has not found the pleasurable for himself in the school-room had better get out of it, since he is never likely to go in search for the pleasurable for his pupils.

The new pedagogy seeks to identify its methods in terms of the pleasurable; and has found little or no difficulty in doing so, as far as a physical drill and an improved mental drill is concerned. There is an exuberance in the physical and mental activities of the young, which, when properly harnessed by the skilful *pedagogos* within the school areas, makes for the pleasurable that is its own incentive beyond the limits of mere school work. And since nature works along law-lines that are similar, there is no reason to believe that the moral energies of the child are one whit less exuberant than the physical and mental energies. All the talk about the wilfulness of children is but another way of speaking of the exuberance of the moral activities of the child; and in the proper harnessing of this exuberance lies hidden a new method, an element

of the practical pedagogy of the present times, that no teacher should fail to go out in search for. I myself have, modestly, let me hope, gone out in search of such a method,—something positive, with no halting at a mere negation in which there is only a sound of weeping and wailing, but a prying into what is likely to lead us all to find the pleasurable in the moral, for the ordinary young person who occupies a desk in the public school. There is no make-believe about the search I have entered upon ; nor is there any finality in the method I have endeavoured to formulate. And hence I plead with every teacher to give a helping hand in the maturing of such a method, or series of methods, by means of which the moral nature will no more be neglected by the new pedagogy than are the physical and the mental. To place before you the minuter details of the method that has suggested itself to me would place me in the position of a canvasser rather than an advocate. Suffice it to say that morality training is no peradventure, and any one who seeks to find its fundamentals beyond the law of God will certainly find themselves eventually in the plight of the poor little girl I once found in a large school in a neighbouring country where no pupil could tell me who it was that had said, “Thou shalt not steal.” Coming to the rescue of her fellow pupils, with her hand up, she innocently told me that it was the policeman who had said so. No, the method I am seeking to mature through the co-operation of every teacher in the land has its foundation in the law *which is perfect*,—and its developments by Him who has given His name to the highest morality civilization knows of,—the developments of a pedagogy that knows no equal to it among educationists and teachers ancient and modern. Any teacher who would care to look into the matter, after this simple and direct enunciation of the subject, may have a fuller elucidation of my suggestion by entering into a correspondence with me, not as a mere declaimer against past or present neglect, but as one who would willingly give a helping hand towards maturing all suggestions that may tend towards having in our schools a less diffusive method of moral training than the purposeless memorization of Scripture texts or the admonition that palls by having so little stability from example.

THE QUALIFICATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL INSPECTORS.

A. WEIDENHAMMER, WATERLOO.

The subject assigned to me is one of such vital importance that I fear your committee has made a grave mistake in selecting me as its champion, and had it not been that for some years I have felt that the regulations of the Education Department were unfavorable to the best interests of Public School teachers and more and more favorable to the Universities, I would have declined most emphatically the honor of introducing this subject. If I fall short of your expectations, or if I make statements with which you disagree, I crave your kind indulgence, for I feel how incompetent I am to deal with so important a question as the one before us.

Probably no class of men have better opportunities of observing the workings of our Public School system than our Public School inspectors; and there is no class of men whose experience in public education is broader and more worthy of recognition than that of inspectors. They are face to face with the practical side of education, every school day of the year. An inspector cannot be a theorist, for he sees theories exploded every day, neither can he be a pessimist if he is alive to his duty. The belief that inspectors are the most capable men in the Province to suggest improvements in our Public School system, and that Public School teachers are the most competent body of men from whom their ranks can be recruited, has induced me to give my consent to introduce this subject for discussion by the members of the Public School Department of our Association and to learn the opinion of my fellow-teachers regarding it.

With the assumption that every man should be the best authority on his own particular line of work I am bold enough to make the statement that Public School teachers are the most competent men in the profession to fill the positions of Public School inspectors.

Now let us see how Public School teachers have been treated by the Education Department in regard to this matter within the past ten or twelve years. One of the first regulations of the Department read as follows: The qualification for a Public School Inspector's Certificate shall be (*a*) five years' successful experience as a teacher, of which at least three shall have been in a Public School,

(b) a Specialist's Certificate obtained on a University examination or a Degree in Arts from the University of Toronto, with first-class graduating honors in one or more of the recognized departments in said University, or an equivalent standing in any other University of Ontario, with a certificate of having passed the final examination of the Provincial School of Pedagogy (now Normal College).

This regulation, while sufficiently stringent to regulate the supply to the demand, yet afforded an opportunity to the ambitious Public School teacher to qualify himself for an Inspector's certificate by obtaining a Specialist's certificate in one of the recognized departments of a University, but the Education Department stepped in and swept from our path the only hope of advancement that had been left open to us by passing, in 1897, a regulation abolishing Specialist certificates to all except those obtaining a University Degree. The astonished Public School teachers of course protested, as is shown by the resolution from this department of our Association, presented to the Minister of Education in 1898 and for several years in succession after that, asking that Specialists' certificates be restored, but their efforts have been in vain.

Recognizing the fact that, in order to secure proper supervision, it is necessary that an inspector should be well qualified, and that he should be invested with sufficient authority to enforce the prescribed regulations, Public School teachers endeavored to meet the Minister along a different line and presented to him the following resolution: "That the qualification for Public School inspectors be First-Class Certificates of five years' standing and the Degree of Bachelor of Pedagogy from Toronto University, with an experience qualification of at least ten years' teaching, five of which shall have been spent in Public School work so as to cover the teaching of all grades." This resolution, had it been accepted and incorporated in a regulation, would have been, in the matter of experience at least, more stringent than the one issued by the Department. It would have left open to the ambitious Public School teacher a door for his advancement. It would have left him something to work for, some inducement to continue his studies, but with a ruthless hand the Education Department closed the door upon him and pointed towards the University, although they must have known full well that its portals would remain forever closed to the great majority of Public School teachers, who are now eking out a meagre existence on a still more meagre salary.

Again, a year ago a resolution was presented to the Minister, requesting him to grant Specialists' and Inspectors' certificates as previous to 1897. This request I consider very modest indeed, but it, too, was refused.

Now, ladies and gentlemen, I ask you, why is this? Why are we refused every avenue of advancement that does not lead through the portals of the University? Mr. Millar, Deputy Minister of Education, some years ago issued a small book, giving valuable information on the Educational System of Ontario. Dealing with the inspection of schools he says: "It is assumed that no person is qualified for the position of Public School inspector who is not possessed of a wide range of scholarship, and who has not had several years of experience as a teacher. Without the latter, there can be no guarantee of fitness to deal with the many details of school management, and without the former there would be a lack of that culture and broadness of view which scholarly attainment are presumed to give. The Public School inspector requires a knowledge of the work of elementary schools." Experience gained in the High Schools will not suffice. From this quotation you can see that Public School teachers are better qualified to fill the position of inspectors than most University graduates. They have experience, which Mr. Millar says is necessary to deal with the many details of school management; they have a knowledge of the work of elementary schools which many University graduates have not; and I venture even to assert that most of them do not lack that culture and broadness of view which scholarly attainments are presumed to give. Yet the departmental regulations shut them out from a sphere of usefulness which is essentially their own.

We recognize the fact that educational systems, like all else, obey the laws of evolution. In their growth and development they are susceptible to environments, and are liable at times, like other things, to exhibit unhealthy tendencies. Pruning and training may be necessary, as in the growth of a tree, but too frequent pruning may be as injurious as too rank a growth.

An educational system like ours, which is based on the experience of nations, and is in process of development, must, in order to keep pace with the progress of the times and the evolution of educational ideas, be continually undergoing change, and what we conceive to be change for the better. But have these changes been for the better? Personally I have my doubts. It is not my inten-

tion to criticise the basis of our system, nor to make any charges against our present staff of inspectors, who I believe to be as competent and efficient as any on this continent, nor is it my intention to rehearse the long category of duties prescribed for fulfilment by inspectors, for they are all set down *seriatim* in the book of the law and you are as conversant with them as I am myself, and many of you perhaps more so, but I shall deal very briefly with a few of the more important of them, and then leave it to your sound judgment to decide whether or not I am correct in my contention that Public School teachers are the most competent candidates from whom to recruit the ranks of Public School inspectors.

According to the School Law, Public School inspectors should examine into the condition of the schools, as respects the progress of the pupils in learning, the order and discipline observed, the system of instruction pursued, the mode of keeping the register, etc. Who is more competent to do this than the Public School teacher fresh from his work? Does not a man who has been engaged in a different line of work, become out of touch with Public School work and modern educational methods? and does not this unfit him for the time being for the efficient discharge of the duties of an inspector?

Again, we read that he is to deliver from time to time public lectures in his district on some subject connected with Public School education. This is rarely, if ever, done, except at teachers' conventions, but here again I ask, who is more competent to speak on such questions than the Public School teacher?

In all the long category of duties—To spend at least half a day each term in every school in his district, to satisfy himself as to the progress made by the pupils, to examine into the methods of instruction pursued by the teacher, to teach a few model lessons himself, to examine the registers, maps, seats, and all the internal and external equipment of the schoolhouse, to ascertain the nature of the discipline exercised by the teacher, to make the required reports to the trustees and the Education Department, etc., etc., I find nothing that a Public School teacher should not be competent to perform, even to the withholding of the school grant in certain cases, or seeing that no unauthorized text-books or *so-called school-helps* are used by the teachers or pupils in the school. Yet they are debarred from this office by an unjust regulation, and a long-suffering body of Public School teachers indignantly asks the reason why? Were the emoluments of our profession such as

would enable a teacher to save a sufficient sum after a number of years' teaching, to defray the expenses of a University education, I would not call the regulation unjust, but with the miserable pittance that is now paid to teachers, in many cases even grudgingly paid, such a course is impossible. Nor can we look for much improvement along this line when we consider the attitude of the Government towards us in recent years. Teachers are indebted to Dr. Parkin for the statement that the pay of a chambermaid in Upper Canada College is more liberal than the remuneration of a teacher in a Public School. Dr. Parkin says this is an unexaggerated fact, therefore, I say, as long as it is more remunerative to make forty beds than to conduct the education of forty boys and girls in the Province of Ontario we need not look for much improvement along this line.

Under these circumstances, then, are we Public School teachers not justified in demanding that Specialists' and Inspectors' Certificates be restored as previous to 1897, and I would strongly urge upon my fellow-teachers the necessity of being persistent in this matter. Lukewarmness or frequent changings of mind will avail us nothing. We should show the Education Department a bold front and a solid unit behind it, and then only can we hope to gain what we are asking for.

I cannot do better than close with the words used by Mr. McMillan in a paper read before this department of our Association some years ago. He said: "With the assurance that springs from a righteous cause, we should insist on such changes being made as will give more stability, and, therefore, more dignity to the teacher's calling. We can insist on this too, with the full conviction that it is not only compatible with, but essential to, the highest interests of the community. If we are convinced that our contentions are right our duty is clear. The words, 'Who would be free, himself must strike the blow,' even if trite, would possess inspiration for us, and if we cannot achieve all we desire, let us for the cause—which, though too often trailed in the dust, is yet noble and dearly loved—transmit to those who follow an improved heritage."

INCORPORATION OF THE TEACHERS OF THE PROVINCE.

L. T. LOCHHEED, M.A., TORONTO.

Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen :

In a number of County Associations this last year many teachers expressed the great desirability of a much closer relationship of all the teachers of the Province, and for greater unanimity in concerted action by all for mutual protection and educational advancement. Plans were discussed, and action taken in not a few of associations, more particularly in North Ontario, Toronto, Welland, Peterboro', Ingersoll in Oxford County, and Windsor. Resolutions to this end were passed and a number of delegates elected to discuss the subject in this Association. In introducing it, some of the many advantages suggested and desired by teachers throughout the Province for their incorporation under charter, with the view to making teaching a profession, may be briefly outlined as follows :

1. The establishment on a satisfactory and permanent basis of a superannuation fund worthy of teachers who have striven all their lives to educate, to the best of their ability, the youth of our country.

2. The securing of a substantial increase in salaries, so that the remuneration of teachers may compare favorably with that of at least skilled mechanics, instead of the miserable starvation pittance doled out by not a few penurious Boards of Trustees, who do not hesitate to engage teachers almost entirely on the consideration of "cheapness" and not ability and experience. Is it not an outrage, Mr. Chairman, Ladies and Gentlemen, that even chambermaids, as the Principal of Upper Canada College claims, should be better paid than a great many worthy industrious lady teachers in the Province? Engaging the cheapest teachers and consequently nearly, if not always, the poorest, is disastrous to the highest and best educational progress of our boys and girls, and thus to our men and women. No greater calamity can befall our educational system than such a course of folly, which leads to retention in teaching as a rule of the poorest and least ambitious of our teachers, while those of marked ability and devotion to teaching so often become discouraged on account of lack of financial induce-

ments, that they drop out often just at the time they have acquired a most valuable experience, which is thus lost to the Province :

The following is an editorial in the *Evening Record*, Windsor, March 16th, 1903 :

"The occupation of teaching in Ontario at present does not offer inducements to men of ability to make it a permanent calling. No better example of this can be found than by recalling the changes of teachers in Windsor during the last ten years. Excluding the present staff in the city, the Board of Education has had in its employ thirteen male teachers. Of these only two are now teaching. The other eleven, feeling that the future offered fewer opportunities than their ability would gain them in other vocations, left to enter other lines of work. Five of these, Messrs. Elliot, Cameron, Callender, Chisholm and McFadden, are in medicine; three, Messrs. Campbell, Carpenter and Freeman, are in business; one, Mr. Monroe, is in law; Anderson is in College work in Toronto; one has retired.

"Most of these were exceptionally good teachers. A valuable teaching experience of from five to ten years' duration has been lost to the country at the moment of its greatest worth. What is true of local conditions is notoriously true of Ontario in general. Any movement that promises to retain in the services of the country this matured and ripened experience is worthy of encouragement. The movement initiated by the North Ontario Teachers' Convention and unanimously endorsed by the Windsor and Walkerville Teachers' Association last week seems to us one which should go a long way towards effecting this desirable result. The project is to unite the teachers of Ontario into a chartered body similar to the professional organizations governing the medical, legal, or engineering professions.

"By such organization it is hoped to raise the standing of teaching to that eminence which its importance demands. A great defect at present is the immaturity, crudeness and lack of professional training which is characteristic of a large proportion of Public School teachers. An incorporation, properly organized, admitting only members of recognized standing in mental, moral and professional attainments, backed up by successful experience, will, without doubt, go a long way to remedy these defects. That benefit would be of inestimable value to the public.

"The authorization of text-books, the subjects taught, their relative importance and the detailed organization of schools are

matters for those best qualified in actual experience to deal with.

"The present system of many School Boards of advertising for a teacher without stating the salary and accepting the lowest tenderer for the position, irrespective of his value to the community, is one which is doing irreparable injury to the interests of the country. The remedy for this lies in concerted action by the teachers themselves. A strong union with a fixed minimum salary, would prevent the underbidding which this system encourages. Such a breach of professional ethics as underbidding could be punished by such an organization.

"On no other factor does national success depend to such a degree as upon the quality of its education. Unless the best talents can be permanently enlisted in the work of education, the country must inevitably fall behind in the progress of nations.

"The marvellous development of Germany in the last twenty-five years has been a subject of wonder and study to other nations. Consensus of thoughtful opinion attributes it to the excellence of its system of education. This excellence is due to the quality of the teachers. Teachers are civil servants, trained by the State, appointed by the State, paid by the State and pensioned by the State. As a result, teaching is second only to the military profession in dignity and public esteem, and includes some of the most able, earnest and intelligent men in the country. An incorporation composed of teachers of such a standard would have the confidence of the people and of the Government."

These are the words of an editor of a newspaper, so that not only do teachers realize the necessity of something being done, but many ex-teachers and other citizens of our Province, even including some trustees, and there can be no reason why all fair-minded educationalists should not support it. Were there time, reference might be made to many county teachers' associations throughout the Province, where the vast majority, if not all the teachers present, favored some movement to improve the many existing evils. The following is the report of the Windsor and Walkerville Teachers' Association, in the *Windsor Record* in March last:

"Moved by Inspector Maxwell, seconded by M. P. McMaster, Principal of Mercer Street Public School, and unanimously passed by the Windsor and Walkerville Teachers' Association, that D. M. Eagle and H. A. Beaton, delegates of that body to the Ontario Educational Association, meeting in Toronto in April, be instructed to take such action in connection with the incorporation of the

Teachers of Ontario, as their judgment may dictate in harmony with the view of this Association that such incorporation should be formed."

"I am heartily in sympathy with the movement."—W. S. Cody, Principal of Windsor Collegiate Institute.

"From the results from unity in other occupations, I am in favor of a teachers' incorporation being formed."—Inspector Maxwell.

"If anything can be done to make our work a profession, with stability and inducements equal to those of law and medicine, let it be done."—F. P. Gavin, Science Master, Windsor Collegiate Institute.

"I am quite in accord with the objects of the proposed incorporation. Teaching is the poorest paid profession in the country."—J. A. H. Campbell, member of Windsor Board of Education.

TEACHERS' UNITY.

He also said: "The question of a teachers' incorporation discussed at the regular meeting of the Windsor and Walkerville Teachers' Association will be made a live issue at the April meeting of the Ontario Educational Association. The movement was originated nearly two years ago, but was not acted upon. Last year the question was revived by the North Ontario Association, which passed a motion that the teaching body of the Province be incorporated under charter, and any action taken will depend upon the vote of their delegates to the provincial Association."

F. P. Gavin, in discussing the question, went on to say that at the present time teaching was not a profession with dignity of calling or remuneration for services equal to that of law or medicine. Many of the best teachers drop out as they see how greatly they can better their positions in other occupations. Twenty years of conscientious teaching leaves the teacher a wreck and what has he in the future to recompense him?

In Germany teaching was, he said, an honored and dignified calling, ranking next to the military profession. Families of the best classes look forward to having a son enter the army and another a teacher. There teaching ranks with law and medicine.

"We are the people," said the speaker, in conclusion, "who should have charge of educational matters, as we are experts in our line."

"Teachers as an incorporated body are more capable to lay matters before the Government than any outsiders," said Mr. Cody.

"In order to be an effective organization teachers should have a special charter, and before this body all affairs pertaining to educational matters should be discussed."

D. A. Maxwell, Ontario Public Schools, in talking to the question, was strongly in favor of the idea and gave an able address on the benefits regarding the improving of text-books, notably Grammar, that might be derived from the incorporation.

J. A. H. Campbell, a prominent member of the Board of Education, also favored an incorporation and showed how salaries could be bettered by such an organization. He said in part: "I think teachers should take steps to improve salaries. They are very badly paid. Improvement in remuneration can only be accomplished by an incorporation or trust. I give it that name. They should have a minimum standard. The School Board in Windsor voluntarily raised the salaries when they saw how salaries in all occupations have been raised throughout the country."

"Teachers are responsible for low salaries as long as Boards of Education are overwhelmed by applications from teachers who underbid even the stated salary mentioned in their advertisements. At the time of the recent vacancy in the Collegiate, although the salary was stated in the advertisement as \$900.00, a female teacher, an honor graduate, with high testimonials, applied at \$425.00. Incorporation would regulate this and stop underbidding."

Surely, when even trustees see the necessity of such a movement, every teacher in the Province should support it.

3. A third remunerative advantage would accrue from the publication by the teachers' incorporated body of all educational journals, teachers' helps, and even a teacher's newspaper, which undoubtedly would pay a handsome dividend on the capital invested. In connection with the newspaper a Teachers' Employment Bureau could easily be established, so that teachers could assist each other in procuring desirable positions and assist trustees in procuring the most competent teachers for vacancies in schools, and thus place teachers with special qualifications in positions where such special training or qualification would be of the greatest use to the cause of education. Such publications and bureau would also open up temporary positions to unemployed teachers until school vacancies should occur.

4. The securing of desirable changes in our Provincial laws, so that the selection of a teacher should still remain in the hands of local trustees as at present, but the salaries should be paid by a tax

rate distributed over the whole County for all the teachers in it, or even over the whole Province would be better yet. Thus only efficiency, experience and success would secure the appointment of teachers and not the low salary, as each School Board would vie with every other in striving to secure the best teachers possible, since all other sections in the County, or Province, must help pay the salary. This would do much to put poor, cheap, unprincipled teachers completely out of business. The sooner they go the better for the educational advancement of our Province.

5. The establishing and proper distribution of a large helpful circulating library. This surely needs no defence.

6. The establishment of a strong mutual insurance company, optional sick benefits, free doctors, etc., if desired. This could certainly be made popular and profitable, as the death rate among teachers is the lowest of any calling, and therefore their risks would be the very best and cheapest. Taking out insurance would, of course, be entirely optional with each teacher, but the opportunity and economy should certainly be secured.

7. The preparation, examination and even publication of all our school text-books by the general co-operation of all the teachers in the Province, under the guidance and control of a strong revising committee, elected by ballot by all the teachers of the Province. This step is most desirable, as far better and decidedly cheaper books would be produced and supported by the teaching body throughout the Province, thereby securing the strongest public support for the incorporation and concerted effort of all true lovers of education.

THE SUBJECT OF WRITING.

W. H. SHAW, TORONTO.

I do not propose to occupy much of the time of this Association in bringing to the attention of the members here assembled the subject of "Writing"; first, because I believe all will agree with me when I state that the conditions of writing in our Public Schools generally is not what it should be, not up to the comparative standard of excellence which marks the teaching of the other subjects; in short, speaking commercially, it is away below par; and secondly because it will not take much time for me to suggest at least some means of improving the standard as it now exists.

I do not intend to discuss with you the merits of any particular system, other than to remark that I am firmly convinced that the writing of our pupils to-day is not in any degree superior, in fact not equal, to the general standard which prevailed before the vertical was introduced some years ago. I do desire, however, to state, from my own observation and experience, that I am persuaded the standard of writing in our Public Schools is very low.

Perhaps some teacher who is giving proper attention to this subject in his own school, and whose work stands out with distinctiveness like an oasis in the desert, may disagree with me in this particular; but I wish to state that my opinion is based largely upon my personal knowledge of how this subject is generally taught in the Public Schools and upon the many samples of writing I receive through my regular correspondence from boys and girls and from young men and women in every part of the Dominion; and I am certain that no teacher could look over my files of letters without heartily endorsing my opinion as stated. And let me say further, that this correspondence contains many specimens from the hands of our Public School teachers themselves, and that these samples give the key to the cause of poor writing in many of our Schools.

The reason for this condition is not far to seek. I think few will dispute the fact that Writing does not receive the attention in our Schools which it deserves, that it is crowded almost entirely from the Public School time-table, that teachers generally do not write good hands themselves, and that they do not seem to appreciate the value of a rapid business hand to a pupil; and, as a result, the

teaching of this practical subject is done in a perfunctory sort of a manner as compared with many of the other subjects. I am free to say that I believe if Arithmetic, Grammar, History or Geography were taught in the same way as Writing, the general standard of proficiency in the work of our Public Schools would be very greatly depreciated.

The question, then, is this: Is good writing desirable; is it worth the time and effort required to train our children in correct habits from their early school days that they may become good writers? Is it worth as much to a young person to write rapidly and legibly as it is to know all about the capes of Iceland, the fiords of Norway or the general events of the Tudor period? If so (and I claim it is so), why not give the youngster a chance; why not give Writing a fair show in the time-tables; why not spend as much time and effort in preparing to teach Writing as to teach other subjects of far less importance?

I examined the time-table in a fourth-grade class-room last week and found, for example, a thirty minute period given every day for Geography and a twenty minute period twice a week for Writing. This, I claim, is radically wrong and should not be tolerated in any Public School in this Dominion.

I know the claim is set up that illegible writing—any kind of an old scrawl—is the sign of great scholarship; that the leaders in educational reform are invariably bad writers; that it is an insignificant subject when compared with the greater and mightier things that go to make up what is known as the “higher education,” and is therefore not worthy of attention. The claim, however, is not founded on fact. Because a few eminent men, including our late Minister of Education, write a ridiculous scrawl, is no proof that learned men in general ignore good, plain writing.

I have examined carefully manuscripts from the hands of many men who have stood high in point of educational attainments, and I have found the very poor writer to be the exception rather than the rule; but even if it were so, it would be no excuse at all for neglecting this qualification which, in the case of the ordinary boy or girl, has so much to do in improving opportunities for winning the greater success in life.

Now, if I were to outline a plan for making good writers of our pupils, I would say, begin early. In the first grades of our Schools, even in the kindergarten, teach them correct habits as to position and movements; how to sit correctly, and how to hold a pencil or

pen properly, and how to acquire an easy, flowing movement. These habits which govern position and movement form the only true foundation for good writing. It is said that small children cannot be taught anything but a finger movement; that they have no muscles under the forearm upon which to base a free arm or muscular movement. I disagree most positively with such doctrine. I have many times proved that it is not true. Any child who can move the arm at all can be taught to use the muscles from the shoulder, down the arm and over the forearm to direct the free arm movement so absolutely necessary in writing. Form is a secondary matter, but of course should receive some attention; but certainly not to the exclusion of the more important points referred to. Train the mind through the eye to appreciate and recognize form, and thus develop habits of exactness and neatness. But with earlier years of effort be sure that you pay much more attention to the manner of execution than to the product executed. It is the easy part of writing as far as teaching is concerned.

Let any child become habituated to the correct position of the hand, body, etc., and in the use of a free, easy movement, and there is no question whatever but that the form will prove satisfactory and the result in every case will be neat, clean, rapid writing. This is required in the commercial interests of our country. Not the cramped, hard, slow, drawn style now so prevalent throughout the whole Public and High School systems.

A very common evil in writing is the exercise of too much force, too much muscular power. This is the cause of the incessant gripping of the pen or pencil which prevents the use of a free, easy movement. Teachers and pupils alike do not appreciate the delicacy of movement required to direct so light an instrument as a pen, or to move the hand and arm over the small space required for a letter or character.

Then see to it that your pupils hold the pen correctly, that they sit properly, that they do not grip the pen or pencil, and that they acquire a nice, free movement. Give plenty of movement exercises, gymnastics you may call them if you wish; then always keep a good form of each letter and figure displayed prominently on your blackboard, and, with little direction as to form, the power of imitation in the child will do the rest. Do not worry about form other than to keep the product free from all kinds of flourish and superfluous lines. Carry the work up through all the Public School grades along these lines. Give reasonable time—say fifteen or

twenty minutes a day for special drill and study. Require home practice, with the production of one page letter work and one page of exercise as evidence of home work, and see *to it that during school hours, when other work is done by pen or pencil, that your pupils always observe the correct position and movement referred to*, so that the habits thus formed will become fixed and settled, and so remain throughout the whole future career of the student,

Now, where shall we begin to get at these results? I believe we must start with the teacher himself. If it be necessary to test the ability of a candidate for the teaching profession by an examination in kindred other subjects, should it not be quite as necessary to test his ability to teach this subject properly before sending him out into the field to direct the work of a Public School, What is the fact to-day? Is Writing given any comparative prominence at all in the training of a teacher? Is it a test subject in any sense whatever? Were any of you ever plucked at any time on your Writing? Did you ever hear of a candidate who was turned down on that account? I never have, yet when I see some of the specimens that come to me from the hands of some of our Public School teachers from week to week, I do not wonder that the writing of pupils in general is—bad.

I called upon Principal Scott of our Normal School the other day to find out just what time and attention was given each term, by the Normal School classes under his care, to this subject. He told me that for the first six weeks a period of forty-five minutes was given twice a week for lectures on the various systems of penmanship and how to teach them. Think of that, two lessons per week for six weeks; twelve lessons of three-quarter hour each, a total of nine hours' instruction during the whole term. Just think of that, and tell me if any other subject on the curriculum receives such scant attention. I asked if any attempt were made to drill the teachers in any particular system or plan that they might go out prepared to teach a uniform system throughout the schools of our country. He said "No," but he thought "they were nearly all very good writers, anyway that they should be before they come to the Normal School." Well, are they? Go back to the Model School training. How many can recall any special training in Writing, or the teaching of it, in these Model courses? While reasonable attention is given to nearly all the other subjects, and candidates are sent out from the Model Schools of the Province with a good idea of the scope and plan of

teaching, and with a general knowledge of the subject to be taught, we find Writing to be an exception. As far as I have been able to learn from many Model graduates, little or no attention is given to training, either to execute or to teach this particular subject. Then follow the candidate back through his High School course. Did he receive any special training in that part of his school career? In most cases, none whatever. Follow him back into his Public School years. Has the average young man and woman been trained in Writing even in this part of their educational experience? Were correct habits formed in these early years which have enabled them to become good penmen? Generally speaking, "No." Then, there you are.

Now, how can this be remedied? It seems to me that our Education Department must move in this matter. Due prominence must be given to this important subject among the others which form a basis for a license to teach. Let it occupy at least a place on the list. Let it become a plucking subject. Then and only then will candidates begin to give it proper attention. Then give it a place in the Model School programme. Let every Model School principal learn himself how to write well and how to teach it. Let every candidate prove his ability to do justice to this subject before he receives his certificate, and in this way only can I see how a start may be made towards improving the standard of writing in our Public Schools.

Of course, preceding this must come the adoption of a uniform system by the Department, which, I may state in passing, should not be the vertical system, not even for junior classes, for it is the greatest folly to allow the child to form certain habits in writing up to the third grade, and then turn it over to break up these habits and acquire ones suited to a slant system later on. The principle of learning a thing to be unlearned is a ridiculous one. The whole thing must be well planned from the beginning. Give proper prominence throughout the whole course, and accord to it the value due to so important a subject.

Take the Normal course again. Would it not be wiser to spend more time on this subject than on Drawing for instance, which now receives three times as much attention in this course as business writing? Or take Arithmetic. It is more important for our Public Schools pupils to be under the care of a teacher who is well skilled in the higher mathematics and who knows but little about correct methods of teaching Writing, than under an instructor who

can write well and teach it well, and who also has a good working knowledge of the ordinary methods of Arithmetic and can teach the simpler rules thoroughly and well? Every boy and girl must write because it is practical. It is useful, and it is required in every walk in life. Not every boy or girl must learn to *draw*, because few from it draw a livelihood. Granting, however, that Drawing and Mathematics are educational in their effect, that they have a beneficial influence on the child, but should this be a reason for sacrificing the practical side of his education?

So we come to summarize and we find throughout our country there is great necessity for improvement in the teaching of this particular subject, and that it lies with the Education Department to give this subject due prominence, and to see that every teacher becomes as well qualified to teach this particular subject as any other one in the curriculum. Let this follow the adoption of a uniform, sensible, natural, slant system, and let reasonable time and attention be given to this work throughout the whole Public School course, and there is no question whatever but that a very high standard of proficiency in Writing will be attained by the young people of our country.

TRAINING DEPARTMENT.

ARE OUR SCHOOLS MAKING GOOD CITIZENS?

WM. SCOTT, B.A., TORONTO.

If it is true that the character of the adult is largely determined by the training which was received in youth and that the school is, as Mulcaster says, "the means of making or marring the whole fry of the State," then the question of the efficiency of these schools becomes a most serious one, for although secondary schools play a part in modifying this result yet the number who attend the secondary schools as compared with those whose school training is limited to what is obtained in the Public Schools, is so insignificant that powerful as their influence is, it affects directly only a small fraction of the future men and women of the land. In 1902 there were 470,260 pupils in attendance at the Public, Separate, and Kindergarten Schools, and only 22,523, not 5 per cent., at the High Schools and Collegiate Institutes. It is well understood that the Primary Schools must always remain the schools where the vast majority of the future citizens receive all their school-education. Hence the question of their efficiency is very germane to that which looks to the future welfare of the community.

In this connection, it must ever be borne in mind that the school is not the only educator during these early years, as so many who are seized with the *cacoethes scribendi* concerning their shortcomings would like us to believe. These, forgetting that there are other educators than the school, trace all the shortcomings of a reprobate society to the doors of the so-called godless schools. They forget for the time that the home and the street are even as powerful educative forces, if not more so, as the school. They forget that the very remedies they are advocating have been tried again and again and have failed to produce more intelligent, more law-abiding, more God-fearing citizens than the schools they are decrying. I shall return to this phase of the subject again.

Before proceeding further, it may be asked, how is success to be measured? Some will say by ability to read, write, and cipher.

These look on schools as having degenerated and sigh for the good old days of the three R's and the birch. Others judge by the manners and general bearing of the pupils. These think the schools are places where rudeness and incivility, if not directly fostered, are yet among the things which receive scant attention. Still others judge by the general results. Are the lives of the pupils happier than formerly? Are they being fitted to battle successfully with the difficulties of life? In short, are they being prepared to enter upon the duties of life and enjoy the privileges and discharge the responsibilities of citizenship?

Now applying any or all of these tests to the schools of to-day and the same conclusion will be reached. It will be found that they are improving. The reasons are not far to seek. If the greatest factor in the school room is not the subject but the teacher who puts the breath of life into what he teaches; if there is any truth in the oft-repeated maxim, like teacher like pupil, the schools must be better, for surely the teachers of to-day are superior to those of my youth, when the entrance to the teacher's work was through County boards, and failure in other walks of life was often the impelling motive to try teaching. If the sum and substance of good teaching is personality; if the best teaching works through love, earnestness, sympathy and enthusiasm, and approaches the intellectual through the human; if the essential thing in a teacher, after all, is character, then the schools must be better. For are not our teachers more cultured to-day than they were a generation or two ago? Are they not as zealous in good works? Do they not understand what is required from them better? Are they not more rational in their discipline? By one who knows the records of an institution like the Toronto Normal School, which for fifty years has had in its early history the cream of the teaching profession within its walls and later has divided this honor with its sister institutions, only one answer can be given to these questions.

Again, if the teacher's mind must be a perennial fountain of learning, from which he draws inspiring draughts suited to the constant and varying needs of his pupils, the broadening of the courses of study in the High Schools and the more excellent equipment of these institutions, particularly for the teaching of Natural Science, and the greater attention that is now devoted to literature, have added much to the general knowledge of the teacher and have thus prepared him to teach the subjects of even the primary grade better than ever before.

Again, has teaching not improved? Formerly work was performed by rule; teachers set tasks and heard the pupil recite not the substance but the words of the book. Edward Everett well defined teachers of his day as those who heard you say a lesson which someone else had taught you. Surely our County Model Schools and Normal Schools, as well as our High Schools and our zealous body of Inspectors, have done something to raise teaching-standards. Then, if comparison be made between our present text-books and those of even our childhood, it would be found that in all that goes to make a book suitable for school purposes; in the arrangements of its parts; in the printing and illustrations; in its exemplification of well established pedagogical principles, that the books of to-day are far superior to those of a generation or more ago.

But it is said, that in spite of improved teaching, the results are not as good as formerly; pupils cannot write or spell or cipher as well as formerly. This is an old charge and one easily made. It is easy for a father to forget his poor work when he was of the same age as his son of whose work he is complaining. A comparison of the work of pupils of the same age to-day and twenty-five years ago would, I am convinced, result in showing that the average boy of twelve to-day is doing the things his father did a year or two later.

Again, has not the discipline of the school greatly improved within the memory of the older ones here? Do boys fight and swear as formerly? When it is remembered that the fighting and swearing were mere reflections of what went on in the school room and that with improved methods of managing pupils, the desire to play the bully and to rule by brute force almost entirely disappeared from the play-ground, it will at once be evident what an advance has been made in this respect.

But some short-sighted persons may contend that communities are more sober, more reasonable, more refined than formerly and so are the children. Certainly, but this answer begs the question. Improvement in homes comes with improvement in schools. These made the young aware of the foolishness and unreasonableness of conduct unbecoming a good citizen, and the result to-day is that serious crimes are rare in Ontario.

But the manners of pupils are unsatisfactory and hence our schools are not what they should be. Pupils are rude; they forget the common amenities of life. These are not taught in schools and

hence some contend that they are failures. Granted that schools are not all they should be, the question is, are they doing all that in reason can be expected from them to fit the young for practical life? When it is remembered that in this democratic age children soon become self-conscious and imitate the manners of their elders; that there is an independence and self-assertion abroad which is not congenial to the veneered kind of good manners, the Oscar Wilde kind, the kind usually referred to by those who complain of the schools in this respect; and that manners are difficult to teach, in fact, cannot be directly taught when the habits are learned elsewhere, I think it will be conceded that when schools teach and illustrate consideration for the rights and well-being of others; when they foster unselfish acts; when they insist on carefulness in personal appearance and tidiness of dress and surroundings; in short, when they exemplify the golden law of conduct, do to another as you would have that other do to you, they are doing all that is possible for them in imparting good manners. But even in this respect, while falling short of what is desirable, any one who knows the facts will admit that progress is being made.

Again, a love of literature, a love of reading what is worthy is so intimately associated with the future happiness and well-being of any people that the question may well be raised, are our Public Schools efficient in this respect? These may not have reached perfection, or nearly reached it, in their treatment of literature and may not yet have realized the possibilities of supplementary reading, but still they are doing something in these respects, much more than the schools of the halcyon days of the traditional three R's, when absolutely nothing was done to cultivate acquaintance with literature, not even enough to enable a pupil to read intelligently. Are not schools to-day, as never before, engaged in storing in the mind gems of literature—gems about which President Eliot of Harvard, says: "There are bits of poetry in my mind, learned in infancy, that have stood by me in keeping me true to my ideas of duty and life. Rather than lose these, I would have missed all the sermons I ever heard. No teacher knows what he is doing when living thoughts—thoughts that breathe and words that burn—like these in 'bits of poetry' are put deep into the mind and heart of a child. This is using the memory for its best and highest end—heart culture. The immortals here speak to the child by day and by night, tenderly, lovingly, with a wisdom born of God. The Hebrew, the Greek, the Roman child was required to commit to

memory the most important and best things known in their day. These peoples recognized the importance of good memory-work in giving strength to purpose, bias to disposition, and force to character. It was imperative with them that certain things of universal interest should be securely lodged in the memory." As most of us know, such work was unknown a few years ago. Then the memory was employed in mechanically committing mere words which had no intrinsic value in themselves and which the mind hastened to forget as soon as the pupil left school. In most schools some time is spent to-day on that which brings gain of thought and enjoyment for a lifetime.

Having considered some points on which schools have made progress, it will now be in order to consider some things in which improvement is not only possible, but absolutely necessary, if progress is to be maintained.

No occupation, no profession that holds out such a meagre reward as that of teaching can attract the best culture of the land to its services. When the time of preparation and the necessary expenses therewith are considered and contrasted with the future emoluments, one has to look about for a motive for anyone becoming a teacher. This is found in the respectability of the calling and in the fact that in preparing to become a teacher one is fitting himself for success in almost any other business of life. Hence, teaching is now, and always has been, a stepping stone to something else. It is unnecessary to point out the resulting evils. It is obvious that replacing maturity by immaturity, experience by inexperience, acquired skill by the prentice hand, must militate against rapid upward progress.

At present the general level of salaries is slowly rising, being for male teachers \$421 per annum and for female \$306. The latter is the highest average yet reached in Ontario, but it must be evident that such remunerations as these are quite inadequate to the services rendered and quite incapable of retaining in the profession the best men and women.

Again, while the general culture of the teacher has grown in recent years, has there not been a weakening along certain other lines? Such subjects as Arithmetic and Grammar have not in recent years been receiving that attention in the non-professional preparation of teachers that their place in a liberal education requires. The result has been a tendency to superficiality rather than depth, to show rather than to substance, and this not merely

in the subjects immediately concerned but in all subjects. Now it can never be forgotten, as President Roosevelt said, that "the training given in the Public Schools, must of course, be not merely a training in intellect, but a training in what counts for more, fortunately, than intellect—a training in character—and the chief factor in that training must be the personal equation of the teacher, the influence exerted, sometimes consciously and sometimes unconsciously, by the man or woman who stands in so peculiar a relation to the boys and girls under his care, a relation closer, more intimate and more vital in its effects than any other relation save that of parent and child." If this statement of the President is true, and who doubts it, is it not important that our schools should be manned with teachers of substantial attainments in the solid things which make for worth and not for pretence.

Again, are the schools doing all they should in the way of moral training? While there can be no doubt that in this connection they are doing as good work as formerly, yet the fact that there are constant demands for such schools as "Voluntary" ones, where their advocates contend a proper training of the religious and moral nature would be given, shows that at least a considerable portion of the community regard this phase of school work as only imperfectly met by our present conditions.

The whole question is so important and there are so many mistaken notions regarding it, that it may be profitable to discuss the subject briefly.

Those who contend that schools are remiss in imparting a proper moral and religious training would give direct instruction in morals and religion just as if the subject were an intellectual acquisition. Now there can be no greater pedagogical error than to assume that the intellectual perception of a doctrine must necessarily be followed by the corresponding emotions, and that these feelings, when aroused, must necessarily result in conduct of a certain kind. Experience demonstrates that a mere knowledge of religious and moral truths will never make anyone either religious or moral. The devil knows Scripture. Notwithstanding this, he still remains the devil. Merely to state that some things are good and some are bad, and require pupils to believe these statements and recite them is surely barren dogmatism. The primary end of religious and moral instruction is to awaken right feelings—to touch the heart. The awakened love of that which is good and true must supplant low, selfish desires. Hence pupils must *feel* the

goodness and beauty of some deeds and *feel* the meanness and defilement of others. Moral lectures will never accomplish this. Our platitudes are generally useless. To quicken the conscience and train the moral judgment teaching must be concrete and vivid. Of what use is it to discuss the foundations of virtue with primary pupils? If a universal desire indicates a universal need, as is affirmed, then the universal interest of children in stories that depict human conduct shows such stories to be a universal necessity for childhood. Thus only can they be made to glow with enthusiasm in the presence of the selfsacrificing and heroic, and to shrink instinctively from the mean and degrading. Thus only can moral and religious instruction quicken the executive faculty of the moral nature, the conscience, and unless this activity is brought into play, they may not be a whit the better of having received lessons in duty or of having learned the Ten Commandments. Religion and morality cannot be taught directly like a lesson in Arithmetic or Grammar. They are absorbed from the child's environment all unconsciously. A teacher can say to his class with perfect reason, "I am going to teach you fractions in Arithmetic, or case in Grammar, or the counties of Ontario in Geography," but one who would say, "I am going to teach you to be kind, or thoughtful, or loving, or reverent," if not laughed at by his class, would at least be placing himself in the anomalous position of undertaking to do that which even the pupils know he has no power to do. The principles of religion and morality can be taught. These can and must be made the mental possession of the child, but whether they will pass into feeling and thus influence will and conduct depends upon the teacher, who must be the living embodiment of what he is attempting to teach, for school is influenced not only by what he does and says, but far more by what he is, by his accuracy, by his careful performance of duty, by his tastes, his preferences, his courtesy, the breadth of his sympathies, and the largeness and fulness of his life. These facts are constantly forgotten or ignored in practice. In spite of a uniform experience that character is formed and life shaped by personal influences far more than by formal didactic instruction, many assume that the catechism, the lesson leaf, the formal lesson, are the great factors in religious and moral training. How true is the Hebrew maxim, "The doctrine is not the principal thing, but the deed." It is only when the pupil is living in an atmosphere of truth, and purity, and reverence that he becomes these.

That the whole question of training in such subjects as morals, the use of stimulants and narcotics is beset with difficulties, is well illustrated by the following startling fact: Nearly twenty years ago, at the instance of Mrs. Mary H. Hunt, the State of Vermont passed a law requiring the study of stimulants and narcotics to be, not only taught in all the schools of the state, but also that a textbook on this subject be put into the hands of all the pupils who could read. The law on these two points has been observed ever since and those who were first taught are now voters. Now, after fifty years of prohibition, the state has repealed the prohibitory law and has passed a local option law. Six cities and more than eighty townships out of 240 voted at the annual township meeting on the first Tuesday of March of this year to open the saloon. Moreover, it is the universal testimony of the people of that state that it was the vote of the young men that carried the state for local option and so many of the townships for the saloon. In this there is abundant food for thought by all, but especially by those who think that formal teaching on certain subjects is all that is needed to produce the results they so dearly desire.

Some of those who think our schools inefficient and incapable of fitting a man, as Milton said, "to perform justly, skilfully and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war," find the promised land of fulfilment in Manual Training. This is not a new subject, but a new mode of dealing with training by introducing new materials, wood, clay, straw, cane, metal, etc. When correlated with the present literary and scientific courses, it has been found a most efficient aid in supplementing the training which was formerly given by the traditional subjects. The wisest advocates of Manual Training never contend that it, in any form, can ever replace the book and the training which comes from a study of the three R's. The person who has handicraft alone is found to be most mechanical and least fitted to adapt himself to changed conditions. He is a poor creature, limited by the traditions of his craft, and works solely by rules of thumb and has very imperfect ideas about matters beyond his own trade.

Here in Ontario, where we are introducing Manual Training and Domestic Science, it behoves us to see that these are not made the be-all and the end-all of training. The results will be disastrous alike to the student and the subject. In his lecture on Hand Work and Head Work, Fitch sums up his able discussion as follows: "Only do not let us exaggerate the educational value of hand work

or suppose that all our difficulties are to be solved by turning our schools into workshops. Without co-ordinate intellectual training and development, manual training will only accomplish a part, and not the highest part of the work, which lies before the teachers of the future."

Then there is another phase of the subject which should not be overlooked. This is a so-called practical age. Nothing is worthy of much consideration unless it has a practical value. We have returned to the old Roman ideal of the useful and *cui bono* is constantly heard wherever educational problems are being discussed. Now, in our rage for the practical and useful, is it not possible that we are snatching at the shadow and letting the substance pass from us. May not the so-called practical be the least practical? Are not the good, the true, and the beautiful, for all that make life worth living, more practical than mere manual dexterity? Is not the spiritual still as transcendent, and hence still the truly practical, as when we were told that man shall not live by bread alone?

The problems of poor ill-ventilated buildings, imperfect equipment, irregular and unpunctual attendance, inefficient instruction, rural isolation, supplementary reading, poor underpaid teachers, can be solved by Concentration Schools. Wherever these schools have been established these evils have been either completely removed or greatly minimized; but is not the tendency to-day for people to leave the country and congregate in towns and cities, a tendency which is by no means confined to Ontario but is felt also in the neighboring country. Thus in 1891 the urban population of Ontario was 818,000 and the rural 1,295,000; in 1901 these were 935,000 and 1,247,000, respectively. Is this tendency good for the Province? In the last analysis, does not the prosperity and well-being of a country ultimately depend upon the happiness and contentment of those who dwell in the country? Will the bringing of pupils together in large numbers, and accustoming them to the broader companionship and culture which come from association, not tend to increase this evil tendency? Will they not, as the Duke of Devonshire recently said about the schools of England, "take the best and brightest boys and girls from the country districts away to employment in towns?"

When teachers come to understand Nature Study or rather Nature acquaintance; when they realize that it is not another subject about which the pupils are to master so many facts; when they appreciate that it is not what pupils know, but how they know

and how they got to know, that is the important thing ; when they understand that no formal curriculum can be followed, but that that which obtrudes itself at the time becomes the centre of interest ; when they have a sufficient acquaintance with literature to enable them to use Nature Study as a culture subject and to correlate it with other school work as Composition, Reading and Manual Training, then I feel sure that much more will be done than at present to counteract the cityward tendency and to make rural life attractive. The increased desire to read something worthy consequent on a wider and more intelligent observation will do much to brighten country life and to make rural homes, especially during the autumn and winter months, more attractive.

In conclusion, it is believed that the following propositions have been established :

1. Schools have improved in methods of teaching and discipline, consequently their pupils are better fitted to discharge the duties of life.

2. There is room for improvement in manning the schools with better teachers consequent upon increased salaries and better qualifications both academic and professional.

3. The subject of moral training in schools is beset with great difficulties and must ultimately depend upon the personality of the teacher.

4. Manual Training, when wisely correlated with the other school subjects, will be a valuable aid in producing more self-reliant pupils.

5. Concentration Schools and Nature Studies will do much to improve the schools and render country life more congenial to the brightest and most intelligent pupils.

SOME PROBLEMS IN THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

D. J. GOGGIN, M.A., D.C.L., TORONTO.

According to the Report of the Minister of Education there are 8,676 teachers in the public schools of Ontario, and, of those, 6,301 are women. The average yearly salary of the men is \$421; of the women \$306. These figures have an important bearing upon discussions respecting the training of teachers.

Seventy-three per cent. of the teachers are women, and in the nature of things do not and should not expect to make teaching their life work. The other twenty-seven per cent. cannot, on the salary paid, find and maintain homes and make provision for old age. Accordingly we find each year numbers of young persons entering the field of teaching with no intention of remaining therein, and numbers retiring after a few years' service to enter more remunerative callings. Thus it has been for many years and seems likely to continue.

The Training Schools are required, in a few months, to prepare persons young in years, immature in character, and limited in scholarship to teach the eighteen subjects embraced in the elementary curriculum and manage schools successfully during the four or five years they may remain in this calling. If the theorist in pedagogy would but look squarely at these facts, drop the fiction of broad training for a life profession and face the problem of practical preparation for a temporary calling, we should have less pretentious courses for the preparation of teachers. We should attempt less and have this bear very definitely upon the specific work which the teacher must do in the school room.

In this way we shall be able to meet the requirements of practical school men like one able superintendent whom I know. He says he does not object to a teacher knowing Latin, Psychology, Logic, History of Education, etc., but he has no place in his schools for the man who may know all these and yet be unable to teach children to read, write, spell, compose, and cypher in an intelligent, practical way. The latter the teacher must know, the former he may know.

In the professional training of teachers there are some problems that thrust themselves upon the attention of instructors.

THE PROBLEM OF KNOWLEDGE.

The person who presents himself for admission to a Training School is supposed to have attained a certain standard in scholarship. He is supposed to have an adequate knowledge, for his work as a teacher, of the subject matter of the studies enumerated in the traditional curriculum. Has he?

Ask his instructors in the Training School a month after the session begins. They will tell you that the average student does not read well, writes an unformed, slovenly hand and is unable to clothe his thoughts in good English. His knowledge of Geography is chiefly that of place. He has learned some physical Geography from a text-book, but he has had little if any training in field work. Of economic Geography he is ignorant. His power to make deductions from geographical facts is weak.

In History he knows little of great movements, much of separate events, especially in political and constitutional History, but these have not been winnowed, correlated, and interpreted so as to reveal underlying principles. Of comparative History—of great national movements with similar causes and results, he knows little. Of economic History, which deals with the physical side of the life of communities and individuals, and dwells on the practical use and misuse of national resources and the successes and failures due to financial experiments, he knows practically nothing. He has made no study of the organs and the methods which human society has developed at different times for dealing with industrial problems. Without a knowledge of these phases of a nation's life how can he understand, much less teach, its history?

His knowledge of technical Grammar is fair, but he is prone to treat it as an isolated subject and not connect it with Composition and Literature.

He has read a limited number of selections in Literature, got them up for examinations, but he has not read generously and lacks that specific culture that comes through wide acquaintance with the best literature.

In Nature Study his want of training in observation and his inability to make inferences are strikingly evident. In Mathematics the report is much more favorable.

He has studied these and other subjects during his school course, but he does not know them as the teacher needs to know them. Whatever else he may know he must know these subjects. He

cannot teach what he does not know, and it is not sufficient excuse for ignorance here to plead that he knows something or even much of many other subjects which he is not directly called on to teach. He has no place in the Training Schools, as they now exist, till he knows these subjects. No course in pedagogy can be of real service till the teacher in training knows his academic work. His professional studies must rest on a sound academic basis.

Now who is to blame for this ignorance? The Training School hints that the High School is the sinner. The High School looks doubtfully towards the Public School, confidently at the makers of curriculums, and significantly at the authors of examination papers as joint causes of this unsatisfactory condition of affairs.

One critic says that pupils do not remain long enough in the High Schools to receive thorough preparation, present themselves for examination on the chance of passing, and that masters do not oppose at all vigorously this fatal haste. Another says it is the competition between schools for examination results that causes masters to tolerate if not encourage this haste.

Another affirms that our curriculum is far too pretentious and that in trying to do so many things we fail to do any well. To this critic it is replied that modern civilization is becoming more and more complex and that the boy of to-day needs to know many more things than the boy of a century ago. New facts, new ideas from the physical sciences are becoming part of the national consciousness. The telegraph, telephone, railway and steamship are bringing close together widely different civilizations. Influences from all these sources are stirring our minds to new thoughts and new moods and developing in us new aptitudes and new powers.

Whoever may be to blame I think it is demonstrably true that the scholarship of many, if not most, who enter our Training Schools is inaccurate and inadequate. I do not think we shall solve this problem of scholarship till we prescribe a less number of studies, exact a much higher standard in our qualifying examinations, and within a fixed period after the beginning of a session reject unhesitatingly every student whose scholarship is found unsatisfactory.

I have not time to-day to discuss courses of study in Training Schools, but perhaps I may be permitted to express the hope that the lengthening of the session in the Ontario Normal Schools means more attention to scholarship rather than more time to pedagogy. Breadth is a good thing but here depth is essential.

THE PROBLEM OF CULTURE.

Dr. Arnold, in writing a letter of enquiry respecting a teacher, said: "What I want is a man who is a Christian and a gentleman, an active man, one who has common sense and understands boys." These qualities he preferred to high scholarship though he by no means despised scholarship. To another he wrote that the qualifications essential to the due performance of a teacher's duties could be expressed best in the phrase "the spirit of a Christian and a gentleman."

I suppose we shall all agree that a teacher should be a gentleman in the conventional sense of the term, that he should practice those external forms of conduct which express a true sense of the proprieties of life, are the measure of good behaviour in society, and should exhibit that politeness which denotes a genuine respect for the wants and wishes of others.

Does the average student who enters the Training School come with refined and gentle manners, and with a self-control sufficient to free him from the need of external restraint and guidance? Is he at his ease in the drawing room, the dining room, the social gathering, through familiarity with the forms and usages that obtain in good society?

Has he that refinement of feeling that enables him to understand and sympathise with the joys and sorrows of others, and does he know the forms and limits of its manifestations? Has he that culture of the soul that comes through the companionship of good literature and gentle people and is exhibited in correct speech, and in the modulated tones of that low voice which is an excellent thing in man as well as in woman?

Emerson said: "Give a boy address and accomplishments and you give him the mastery of palaces and fortunes wherever he goes. He has not the trouble of earning or owning them: they solicit him to enter and possess." He adds: "Wise men read very sharply all your private history in your look, gait and behaviour."

We are not recruiting our teaching staff to-day from the more refined classes. The sons and daughters of our cultivated people are not attracted by a calling which promises hard work, small pay, and little future. How many of our teachers—honest, earnest, indefatigable workers—are excluded from the homes of the refined, and handicapped in their life work through defects in manner, speech and action! How are we to deal with this raw material—often vigorous, energetic and capable?

The home should have done its share in the culturing process, doubtless would have done it if it had known how. The schools, where they have not ignored their share, have not been signally successful in doing it. This culture has not counted in examinations. It cannot be measured with a departmental foot-rule.

The Training School should not recommend for certificates persons who are deficient in this essential qualification and who accordingly cannot give children that training in the proprieties of life that so many of them sorely need. It must undertake this work.

If every Training School had a "residence" presided over by a tactful person of strong character and refined manners, the force of example, general instruction in social usages, and occasional private admonition, would be sufficient to bring about a great improvement in the behaviour of the students. The effect of such work in private residential schools is well known. It is not difficult to estimate the value of the ordinary boarding house as an influence in refining the manners of the student who exists in it during the session.

For many years I devoted one hour a week to talks on "Manners." We discussed in detail, as a mother or father would with the children, behaviour in the dining room, drawing room, private rooms; in the church, in public assemblies, on the street; introductions, calls, invitations, acceptances or regrets, dressing, etc., etc. No talks given during a session were followed more closely, discussed more keenly, or put into practice so quickly. Those who needed such instruction least, welcomed it as heartily as those who needed it most, because of its effect on the behaviour of all. Many a youth through such talks is spared the humiliation that follows unintentional breaches of social usage.

As the critic of the literary society the principal of a Training School has many opportunities for teaching the courtesies as well as the rules of debate, and the usages followed by those who sing or read.

THE PROBLEM OF PRACTICE.

After an instructor in a Training School has discussed with his students the educational values of a subject and its relations to other subjects in the curriculum, has described methods of teaching representative portions of it and has given illustration lessons to pupils in the presence of his class, there remains the problem of

securing for these students continued observation of the work of teachers who are models in manners, speech, teaching and management, that high ideals may be established, and also the problem of securing sufficient practice in the class rooms to enable the student to learn the technique of his art and demonstrate his ability to interpret his theory through action.

The years have brought me increasing faith in the value of a model room or school in which from day to day the students observe ideal work and afterwards discuss the principles and methods illustrated. Such a room represents the highest type of teaching which the Training School has evolved and should not be used as a practice room. Chancellor Payne, one of America's soundest educational thinkers, has for years insisted that such observation is much more valuable than practice. The ideal condition, it seems to me, is continued intelligent observation of such work supplemented by practice in other rooms. Over and over again teachers have told me that it was the practice of Miss —, not the lectures of Mr. —, that shaped their teaching, gave them their pedagogic ideals.

For practice teaching the students are many, the class-rooms few. The examination and criticism of lesson plans, the observation and criticism of lessons taught, the private conferences with individual students, are a heavy drain on the time and strength of the instructor, but all are necessary.

I have tested with varying success many devices for securing economical and effective practice teaching. The following plan comes nearer solving the problem than any other with which I am acquainted.

The students are divided into as many groups as there are practice rooms. Each group has a chairman selected by the principal of the Training School. Each group remains one week in a room and then moves forward into the next class till each room has been visited. Then the groups are rearranged and proceed as before.

Each group of students is divided into as many sections as there are lessons to be taught during the period. The chairman decides what lesson each section shall report on. Notes are taken and at the close of the period all groups return to the assembly room. Those who have been observing are given twenty minutes in which to write out a criticism from their notes, and each understands that this criticism is a factor in determining his own standing.

The next twenty-five minutes are spent in each group reading aloud these criticisms and discussing them. The students have learned that criticism is not necessarily faultfinding, and that excellences are quite as important as defects. Differences of opinion are referred to members of the staff, who are always present, passing from group to group, assisting in the discussion and occasionally directing it. Criticisms on the language or manners of a student are given only by an instructor and privately.

During these forty-five minutes the students who have been chosen to teach next day are in the library preparing outline lesson plans. A member of the staff is there to advise them as to reference books and to discuss difficulties that may arise. At the end of this forty-five minute period these students pass to the assembly-room and read their outlines to their respective groups. The groups discuss the suitability of the plans in matter and method for about twenty minutes. Thus the members of a group learn what is to be presented next day, know how it is to be presented and are prepared to criticise the lesson intelligently. The student feels that the wisdom of the many has become the property of the one, that his critics are his allies.

That evening the student elaborates his plan and next morning presents it, neatly written out, to the instructor who is responsible for his group. The instructor reads it, makes pencilled criticisms and returns it before noon. The student teaches in the afternoon before a group of students who know what he is striving to do, and before an instructor who knows that the interests of the pupils have been safeguarded.

Daily the chairman of each group collects the written criticisms of lessons and hands them to the instructors, who base one talk each week on the errors described therein. These criticisms reveal much to the instructor respecting the scholarship, mental powers, and pedagogical knowledge of the writers. I have found them quite as helpful in determining the standing of students as are the lessons taught, and more useful than the written examination on methods.

The value of this work is two-fold. It gives each student ample training in intelligent criticism. When a student has learned to criticise in the light of principles he may be trusted to do independent work; he is prepared to grow. The plan also affords ample protection to the pupils in the practice room.

THE PROBLEM OF PROBATION.

The Training School cannot test power of independent management. It cannot supply the conditions for such a test, since the pupils in the practice rooms know that their own instructors are never far away. Many a student who teaches well in a practice room is afterwards quite unable to control a school, and quite lacking in that tact which is essential in dealing successfully with the trustees and parents.

For this reason it is imperative that no permanent certificate be issued till the teacher has completed at least one year's service in the school-room and has received a favorable report from an inspector after his second visit. The teacher who fails to obtain such report may, on the recommendation of the inspector, be granted an additional year, but at the end of that second year he should have earned the recommendation or be forced, in the interests of the children, to cease teaching. During his first year the teacher is forming habits of work and I have had abundant evidence of the salutary influence of the probationary certificate during this formative period.

I have presented for your discussion some of the problems that have given me trouble in the training of teachers during the past twenty-five years and have indicated the lines along which, it seems to me, their solution is to be sought.

All citizens who are interested in education have an interest in these problems, but their solution must come through those specially engaged in the training of teachers.

EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY.

ALBERT H. ABBOTT, B.A., TORONTO.

One of the difficulties which I have felt in bringing this subject before you to-day is that the subject is very wide and offers many particular lines of thought and our time, of course, is limited, and then, as I have not been familiar with the work which has been taken up in former years by your Section, I felt a difficulty in the way of the limits which should be set to my discussion, both from the standpoint of the foundations of experimental psychology and also of the more modern developments of it. However, after discussing the matter with some of those who have been following the work of the Training Section more in detail than I have been able to do, I have decided to take nothing for granted, and to discuss the matter with you from the standpoint of first principles. My subject, then, will be divided into two parts, first, the critical foundations of experimental psychology, and the second the actual development of the science.

In order to get at the significance of experimental psychology it will be necessary for us to glance for a moment at some of the conceptions which dominated that psychology which was developed in earlier times. If we follow the terminology which Kant has given us with regard to philosophy, we may designate this psychology by the word "dogmatic." Dogmatic psychology, then has been dominated by four hypothetical conceptions:

1. Matter or nature,
2. Idea,
3. Mind or spirit,
4. Causality.

The latter of these conceptions might be properly considered as the dominating thought which has in reality given form to the three other conceptions.

It may be profitable for us, in order to get the problem clearly before us, to glance for a moment at these conceptions, especially the first three, from the standpoint of theory of knowledge. You are aware that psychology has been classified as materialistic or spiritualistic accordingly as it started with one or other of the conceptions—matter or mind. Both forms of psychology have followed a method which can properly be described as deduc-

tive. Having taken for granted, let us suppose, the conception of matter, the facts of the mental life were simply deduced from this conception according to the law of causality, and we were then told what idea was and what mind was, in terms of the original hypothesis, and not at all in terms of the facts as we actually experienced them. Similarly the spiritualistic psychologist, having taken for granted that mind is a substance which *has* ideas but is quite distinct from them, proceeds to deduce the so-called faculties of mind according to this supposition, and then to tell us what an idea is from that standpoint. So much then for the method of dogmatic psychology. Let us glance now more critically at these conceptions in order to notice some of the difficulties into which they lead us. In order to make our discussion as broad as possible, we shall speak of nature rather than matter, for, after all, that is the conception which is at stake.

Nature is regarded as something which exists "outside of us," and ordinarily the exact meaning of this phrase is difficult to reach. This much at least is clear: Nature is something which is fundamentally different from mind, and it is also different from ideas. Supposing now we take the standpoint of nature and endeavor to develop it. What can the subject-matter of psychology be from this point of view? If we suggest "ideas," or "mind," we are at once met with the difficulty of the natural scientist, who will tell us that nature is known—he sees it, can touch it, and apprehend it in many ways—but of ideas he knows nothing at all if they be something different from nature; and of mind he knows still less, if that were possible. You will thus see that from this standpoint psychology is met with the difficulty that there is no absolutely certain subject-matter which can be investigated different from that which is already investigated by the physical sciences; and from the standpoint of theory of knowledge we can say very little to combat such a view, provided, of course, that we grant the correctness of the conception of nature which is held. If we start from the standpoint of idea and take for granted that the idea is something which exists in mind, that it is entirely different in its constitution from the facts of nature, and that through it we know all that it is possible for us to know of nature, it is quite clear that we shall have a subject-matter for psychology, but we have lost all the subject-matter which the physical scientist thinks he is investigating, namely, Nature. This conception of idea, then, from the standpoint of theory of know-

ledge, will offer grave difficulties, and it is quite clear that from such a standpoint we can never hope to bring psychology into good repute with the workers in other sciences. This psychology also offered another peculiar difficulty because we were told that these ideas were to be known by "introspection," and one has only to read the history of the subject to find keen critics contending that they found such introspection absolutely impossible, and that, as a matter of fact, such ideas were never known.

To begin with mind offers even more serious difficulties, for not only is the mind itself challenged, but the so-called faculties of the mind are in doubt, idea is in doubt, and nature is, of course, purely hypothetical.

It is unnecessary to do more than call attention to the fact that running through all these theories there is the idea of causality, more prominent in some than in others, but always there, and, indeed, most of the problems raised have the larger problem of causality back of them.

Now the point to which I wish to direct your attention in this review is simply this: No matter with which of these hypotheses we begin we get into difficulty from the standpoint of theory of knowledge at the very outset, and hence it is quite clear that no psychology which has such a difficulty at its very basis can ever claim to be a *science*. It is, at best, a system of deductions from a given hypothesis.

It would be quite meaningless to discuss these theories to-day were it not the case that much of our current psychology is still, in its main tendencies, dogmatic. By this I do not mean to imply that we have any one of the theories which I have just discussed presented to us, but rather that our current psychology consists to a very great extent of a more or less contradictory compound of all of them. Evidence of this may be found without difficulty in some of the discussions which one can still read from time to time in text-books on the subject. I shall take the liberty of referring to a few of the points in which this is seen:

1. The discussion of Sensation: Sensation is commonly defined as a mental state caused by the stimulation of the sense organ, or brain. Of course, without going into details at all, one can see that we have here at least three of these hypotheses: To make the definition intelligible nature must be something entirely different from sensation; Sensation involves in it, then, the hypothesis of idea, and running through both is the more or less indefinite idea of causality.

2. The use made of the physiological in "explaining" the mental. A sensation is supposed to be adequately explained when certain physiological processes are discovered which occur concurrently with it. It is quite clear that this is a relic of materialistic psychology, and anyone must see that, as a matter of fact, such physiological processes explain nothing with regard to sensation. Similarly the use made of the physiological in discussions of memory must lead us to the same conclusion. We are said to remember certain things because of certain physiological processes, and, as you are aware, it is quite common to find all association of ideas "explained" by means of nervous connections or nerve tracts in the brain. Manifestly the time at our disposal forbids an exhaustive discussion of such a point as this, but we are perfectly safe in making the most dogmatic assertion that the physiological nerve processes can do nothing toward making the problem of memory or association more intelligible to us. The best that can be done in this connection is to correlate certain associations with certain nervous processes, but this is by no means an explanation of the association.

3. In the discussion of memory and association from the purely mental standpoint, one does not need to seek far to discover traces of the hypotheses mentioned. For example, the conception of idea which is held—the supposition that ideas (the same ideas) recur again and again in consciousness—is so familiar to most of you that the mere mention of it would be sufficient to direct your attention to the presence of the above hypotheses of mind and idea.

4. When we come to the discussion of will in much of the current psychology, the attempt to discover the facts, as it seems to me, is frankly given up, and the whole subject is discussed from the standpoint of pure hypotheses. Prof. James, of Harvard, gives (in his *Psychology*) a summary of the problem of freedom which is both instructive and entertaining. The conclusion which he reaches is, however, from my point of view the most instructive part of the work. It is this: If you begin with those who deny freedom, accept their pre-suppositions and their method, you will find that they have clearly proven their point, and freedom is utterly absurd. If, on the other hand, you start with those who hold freedom—he discusses only the liberty of indifference view—accept their pre-suppositions and method, you will find that necessitarianism is a thoroughly absurd and impossible theory. Prof. James' conclusion, therefore, is that one's view on the problem of

freedom from the standpoint of psychology, must be that of the agnostic because one view is just as good as the other. Such a problem can only be settled by ethics. If we read Prof. James' *Ethics*, we find that the last question can only be settled by metaphysics, and when we are through with the metaphysics of the question we find that we have these problems of mind, idea and nature still on our hands and as far from the solution as ever.

These illustrations, then, may suffice to show that much of our psychology is still pretty deeply dogmatic in character, and, if I may be permitted to attempt in a few words a summary of what seems to me the foundation difficulty of all, I should say that the main error lies in the fact that dualism is frankly accepted in psychology, and it is taken for granted that ideas and nature are in two entirely different realms with fundamentally opposite characteristics. That such a view should hold sway something more than one hundred and twenty years after the publication of Kant's "*Critique of Pure Reason*" may seem strange, when we remember that whatever else may be said for this work so much at least is certain, that Kant proved conclusively that ideas and objects were not to be regarded as forming two distinct worlds, but that in our actual experience these two were the same.

I should like to insist, then, upon the position that the scientific psychologist must begin his work with the identity of idea and object (the "*Presentation Object*" of Wundt), not at all because Kant has proven such to be the case, but because, as a matter of fact, in our individual experiences no one can distinguish between his idea of an object and the real object, except in terms of the suppositions already discussed, or similar hypotheses, which, as it seems to me, even after the brief discussion we have given them, we ought to be satisfied to discard, or at least to anxiously question. We do not know two worlds—a world of ideas and a world of objects. The world of experience consists if you like of ideas, if you like of objects, but no matter which you choose, no difference can be found between the one and the other. Ideas, then, are localized in space, they have size; they may be analyzed into colors, temperatures, sounds, etc., as these sensations may variously combine, but they can never be distinguished from the objects which, in the last analysis, can only be analyzed into the same elements. The further facts of Feeling and Volition are, of course, left out of account in such a statement.

Experimental psychology, then, depends, as I believe, for its

scientific character upon the fact that we are investigating the facts of experience, and that our results can be expressed both in terms of consciousness, and in terms of the most exact physical measurements. I think you will see that at least this much is involved in the identity of idea and object upon which I have insisted.

Experimental psychology, however, must not be conceived in too narrow a way. It is far broader than any sphere in which experiment has as yet been found applicable, and perhaps it would be better for our purpose to call it scientific rather than experimental psychology. The characteristic of such a psychology lies in its use of a thoroughly scientific method, and this involves at least two conditions:

1. That we make no hypotheses at the outset, and that our so-called facts are not mere deductions from such. The place for hypotheses in psychology or in any science is at the end rather than the beginning of an investigation.

2. That we adhere strictly to scientific method in the analysis of the facts, and that for two reasons: (1) For the purpose of the exact definition of terms, I need only mention the hopelessly confused condition of much of our psychological terminology at the present time to call to your mind the need for a most exact analysis of fact as a basis for the definition of such terms; (2) For the purpose of ascertaining the elements of our experience. No science can proceed in its investigations very far without finding out that the elements must be determined in order to make the future investigations of real meaning.

So much, then, for the critical foundations of scientific psychology. Now, briefly, we may refer to the actual historical development of the science.

Experimental psychology has in reality had a history from two standpoints: the first finds its representative in the great Herbart who, for the first time, thought it possible to apply mathematics to ideas. I need not go into the details of his work, for any of you who have looked inside of his *Psychology* cannot have failed to be impressed with the fact that some of the pages might well be mistaken as extracts from a text-book in higher mathematics. His results were not found to be of permanent value—indeed, no one followed him in his complex mathematical formulæ—but he at least showed men that it might be possible to apply mathematics to ideas, and this thought was developed by many of his followers

in various ways. The second aspect of the development of experimental psychology came from the work of certain physiologists and physicists who, in their investigations, came across problems which were outside of the province of either physiology or physics, and yet were clearly problems. So, for example, the physiologist, E. H. Weber, in investigating the subject of touch about 1825, noticed that it was possible to add a certain amount to a weight which was placed upon the hand without this addition being noticed. Neither physics nor physiology provided for such a fact, but fact it clearly was, and he proceeded to investigate it and published his results in 1831. These were, briefly, as follows: If to a given weight—for example a pound—a certain amount must be added in order that our sensation should be noticeably greater, he found that this amount was not a constant quantity—for example, one ounce—but that it increased relatively to the increase of the amount used as stimulus in each case. Thus, for example, for two pounds the amount added would be still one-sixteenth—that is, two ounces—and for three pounds the same ratio, and so on for larger amounts. To these facts the name, “The law of Weber,” was given by G. T. Fechner, who continued the investigations after the publication of Weber’s results, and this law soon became what it is to-day, the great central principle of scientific psychology, standing in relation to it in much the same way that the law of gravitation stands to physical research. Fechner, with many more facts, and with a more elaborate application of mathematical knowledge than Weber, was able to build the foundations of psycho-physics, to give to the world an exact statement of the psycho-physical methods of research, and in many ways to place the science far beyond the point of conjecture and make it a realized fact. In Fechner, then, we have united these two tendencies to which reference has been made; the attempt to apply mathematics to the investigation of ideas, and the application of exact scientific methods in psychology. It was left, however, to the great Wilhelm Wundt to publish the classic of scientific psychology, for such is the place which must be accorded to his great work “*Grundzüge der Physiologischen Psychologie*,” which first appeared in 1874, and has since gone through five editions. Wundt is in every respect a most remarkable man; fitted above most men to accomplish just exactly what was needed in psychology, beginning his academic life as professor of Physiology and as a medical doctor he early wrote articles upon Mathematics and

Physics, and later published a text-book of Physiology. With such equipment he began his investigation in the realm of psychology. It is little wonder that his work was soon recognized and that he was called to the chair of Philosophy in the University of Leipzig in spite of the fact that he had not been trained as a philosopher. Wundt thus brings together the best work in physiology, in mathematics and in physics, and with a thorough knowledge of the methods employed builds in conformity with these a new science, namely, experimental psychology. It will thus be seen that experimental psychology is at most fifty years old, and if the publication of Wundt's great work be taken as its origin, it has still to reach its thirtieth birthday. With such a short life it is no wonder that critics are still discussing the possibilities of experimental research in psychology, and that some are not yet through debating the question as to whether such a science is any more than a department of physiology. Into these questions I do not intend at the present time to enter, for, after all, the mere discussion of such problems indicates only that there are still some philosophers who do not understand that it is possible to investigate the facts of our mental life independently of certain hypotheses.

Did time permit, it might be of interest were I to outline some of the outstanding results in psychology, but such detail work would certainly of necessity be forgotten, and therefore I shall content myself with referring to one great principle which experimental research in psychology has abundantly established. This is termed by Wundt, the Law of Relativity, and it has three special aspects: First, as applied to quantity, it is known as Weber's law; as applied to quality, it is called the law of contrast; as applied to memory, it is called the law of recognition. Summing up the essence of this law in one sentence, it is simply this: Every fact of consciousness stands in essential relation to every other fact so that for consciousness nothing unchanging is known. The unity of consciousness consists in the fact that the events of our experience are not individual and disconnected, but rather that they together form a process in which no fact is without influence on the whole.

[The Law of Relativity was illustrated by means of experiments in both quantity and quality. The former experiment consisted in arranging three rotary discs composed of black and white sectors, so that one was judged to be an intensity (or

brightness) midway between the other two. When this condition was reached it was found that the intensities of the discs, considered physically, did not form an arithmetical progression—as the sensations did—but rather that these intensities formed a geometrical progression, which is what the law of Weber would demand.

Thus, when the sensations are so that the following judgment is made:

$$B - A = C - B$$

the physical intensities of the stimuli stand as follows:

$$\frac{A}{B} = \frac{B}{C}$$

$$\text{i.e. } B = \sqrt{AC}$$

In the experiment to illustrate the Law of Relativity in quality, the phenomenon of color contrast was utilized, so that changing colors were seen on a surface, at which no physical change was occurring, and which reflected only ordinary daylight or colorless light.]

MODEL SCHOOLS AND THEIR IMPROVEMENT.

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The subject assigned me some time ago, viz., "How can we best improve our Model Schools," is one of vital interest, not only to the teaching profession, but to the Province at large. This fact becomes very evident from a perusal of the Report of the Minister of Education just issued, which shows that of the 9,494 teachers of the Province, 3,571 held but third class as compared with 4,736 who held certificates from the Normal Schools or Normal College. Assuming an average attendance of forty pupils, this means that the Public School education of 140,000 of the children of the Province is in the hands of third class teachers who have received their training solely at the County Model Schools.

This being the case, it behooves us, from a national standpoint, to so constitute our Model Schools that the mental equipment of teachers trained therein shall be commensurate with the responsibilities laid upon them.

As at present constituted, the session of the Model Schools lasts fourteen weeks, during which there is a basic course in the Science of Education, including School Organization and Management; a course of Methodology, embracing all the subjects of the Public School curriculum, and an academic course in Hygiene, Agriculture, and Book-keeping. To add to this there is the observation of practical teaching in the various grades of the Model School, followed by actual teaching in these grades. This work is all under the instruction and direction of a principal, who, with few exceptions, is released from his regular duties as a teacher of the highest division of the Model School during the professional term.

This, in brief, is the condition of affairs as far as the Model Schools of the Province are concerned. I place it in this brief way that we may be able to see the more prominent weaknesses, to the end that we may arrive at a solution of the problem in a manner satisfactory, if possible, to all interests concerned.

It is my purpose in the present paper to treat in a very brief way of the more prominent weaknesses in the system, and then set forth what I believe to be such changes as will place Model Schools in a position to properly do the work assigned to and expected of them.

In the first place the curriculum is too ambitious in the direction of exhaustive treatment of some departments, while at the same time it is overloaded with work that should more properly find its place in purely academic schools. The above is patent to any one who examines the syllabus detailing Model School work. The assignment in the department of Psychology and Science of Education is almost on a par with that of our Normal Schools, and yet the students of these latter schools have had on an average three years of practical experience in the school-room beyond that of the Model School student. These three years should count for something, and since this department in Normal Schools is found at present even too strong for the average student, what a disheartening task it must prove for the average Model School student. The fact is that, in the attempt to treat the details of pure Psychology, which, in preliminary training, is beyond the mental grasp of the pupils, two evils result: (1) The work is not assimilated, and hazy and incorrect views are formed; (2) the more important elements of the science in their bearing on the practical work of the school-room are not sufficiently emphasized. The knowledge of the fact that the examiner is given in the prescribed course almost unlimited scope, in view of the impending examination, is not indeed reassuring to the anxious pupil.

Second, the subjects of Book-keeping and Agriculture should be relegated to the High Schools, where they can be much better taught. They already appear on the High School programme, and while it is difficult to see in what respect their academic study benefits the Model School work, it must be patent to all that too much valuable time is consumed by them, thus casting aside other work more pertinent to the purpose of a Model School. Could the time spent in these subjects be devoted to the discussion of methods and to practical teaching, great good would result.

Another matter which weakens the work of the Model School is the superficiality of the pupils' mental equipment. This probably is the greatest obstacle encountered. It is most noticeable in Arithmetic and Elementary Science. A limited knowledge of the subjects to be taught necessitates their partial review in the Model School. This requires a large portion of time which otherwise could be devoted to other important work. The attitude of a Model School to the subjects of the Public School curriculum should be reflective rather than acquisitive, that of the teacher rather than that of the student; and it will readily be seen that, if the acquisition of these

subjects by the pupil in his academic course is defective, one of two things inevitably follows—either the Model School must duplicate the work of the High School, as is usually the case, or there is, on the part of the student, a hollow application of psychological principles to the presentation of half assimilated matter, resulting generally in form without content. This I believe to be the chief cause of those formal “wooden” lessons so frequently given by Model School students on topics a little removed from primary work.

Now I do not wish to be misunderstood as depreciating the work done in our High Schools. I believe excellent work is accomplished there. But the continually decreasing average age of candidates for Junior Leaving, coupled with the fact that their examinational course in several of the strongly disciplinary studies, viz., Arithmetic and Elementary Science, has been completed, and that hurriedly, one or two years before entering a Model School, accounts for this superficiality probably more than poor teaching.

In the third place, and resulting from the weaknesses mentioned above, is the small amount of time that can be devoted to the most important work of the Model School—the exemplification of methods of presenting the various subjects of the Public School programme, methods of supplying such conditions as will educe the fullest and most fruitful activity of the pupils and methods of general organization and government. We have only to place on the one side the sixty-five days of a Model School term and on the other the syllabus of work in Psychology, Agriculture, Book-keeping, Music and Physical Culture, Temperance and Hygiene to appreciate the amount of time that can reasonably be left for practical work. It may be true that those qualities which underlie success in the practical work of a school-room are inborn, but it cannot be denied that in some they may lie dormant from want of guiding knowledge, while in many the one talent (in this direction), under the careful guidance of the Model School Principal and by thoroughly putting it to use in the preliminary practice of the school, multiplies it many fold. This requires much time which, under present conditions, cannot be found. Many students, in consequence of the haste with which the work must be covered, leave the Model School with “hazy,” because but half assimilated, notions of school-room practice, to the detriment of a large part of our rural school population.

The conditions under which Model School-room work is conducted

are eminently different from those which obtain in the schools in which students afterwards engage to teach. The observation and practical teaching in almost every instance is under the graded system, while the actual work of the teacher in training is to be in an ungraded school. It is true that there is a recommendation of the Education Department to the effect that an ungraded class should be set apart for the purpose of exemplifying its general organization and government, but this recommendation has not been found practicable in centres wedded to the graded system. And, while it is true that something should be left to the individuality and initiative of the young teacher, there would, without doubt, be a great saving of chagrin to him and of time to rural school pupils placed under his care from his having had some preliminary training in the management of an ungraded school.

It is one thing to glibly recite general pedagogical principles, but another and very different thing to apply them. If the student has not had the opportunity to translate these abstract generalizations into the solution of the particular and unexpected concrete problems that present themselves in the actual work of the ungraded school-room, then his training to that extent is deficient.

Another feature of Model School work that may be catalogued as a weakness is the method of examination. At present the certificate is awarded solely on a final examination in the subjects of the term, and in the practical teaching of two final lessons. This is all right as far as it goes, but the judgment of the only one who has an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the pupil and of having an intimate knowledge of his capabilities as a teacher counts for naught. This neglect to take into account the detailed report of the Model School principal, as a controlling factor in the granting or withholding of certificates by the Board of Examiners, is decidedly opposed to the best interests of the Model School.

Another weakness is found in the method of substitution during the principal's engagement with the Model School. The substitute is frequently, under present conditions, an inexperienced teacher or one who, for one reason or another, happens to be out of occupation; while the short tenure of office, with no probability of further engagement, is not an inspiring motive to the performance of the best work. This is reflected in the indifferent work of the particular class over which he may be placed—usually the highest division—thereby entailing an unnecessary amount of labor on the princi-

pal during the latter half of the school year in preparing this class for the coming departmental examinations.

And finally the paramount obstacle to the best interests of this training work is the altogether too short term. This, indeed, may be cited as the weakness fundamental to almost all the others. Incidentally it has been touched on in discussing the above points, but it appears to me that there is an evil growing out of this that is seldom emphasized, viz.: The formation and deepening of bad habits of study. The amount of work to be accomplished—and this to a great extent new work—leads to a hasty and superficial acquisition of isolated facts without the time or, in too many cases, the disposition to unify this material into a body of related knowledge. Thus the Model School in its practice is forced to stand at variance with the very principles it enunciates, and thus perpetuate the worst features of the Public and High Schools in as far as they relate to methods of study.

That we continue the existence of our Model Schools is a necessity. They furnish us with over one-third of our supply of Public School teachers. That we so modify them as to meet the increased demands upon them and destroy or minimize the evils attendant upon them, as at present constituted, becomes also a plain duty.

Now the question arises, how can our Model Schools be reconstructed so as to strengthen them in these weak points?

THE LENGTH OF THE TERM.

1st. The term should be lengthened to at least eight months, say from the 20th of September to the 20th of May. This will give the principal ample time to organize the schools under his supervision before beginning the Model School work, and to conduct the promotions in the same schools during the month of June. It will also afford him opportunity to exercise general supervision during the entire term of about four or five hours per week. This indirectly would be a great boon to the observation work of the Model School students, supplementing the work of the County inspectors in unifying the system, while directly it would be of great advantage to the schools themselves.

To this end the principal should be supervisor of the Public Schools of the centre in which the Model School is situated, and relieved during the year of the direct responsibility of any particular class. The advantages of allowing the principal to give

his undivided attention to this work must be patent to anyone giving the subject a moment's thought.

The lengthened term will also reduce the interminable system of "cram," which, of necessity, arises out of an overcrowded curriculum, and give the much needed time for actual class teaching and management.

ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS.

In view of what has been said, I believe the only means of strengthening the attainments of the students entering our Model Schools is, 1st, to separate in High Schools the course for teachers from Commercial and University courses; 2nd, to demand a much higher percentage in each subject, and on the aggregate—on examination for teachers' course say 60 per cent. on the total and 50 per cent. on each subject; 3rd, to make Elementary Science obligatory, and 4th, to compel the students to take all the subjects at one examination.

THE CURRICULUM.

1st. However much Psychology may be decried in certain quarters, the subject cannot be dropped from a course of training for teachers. Its principles form the basis of the Philosophy of Education. That the teacher may work understandingly he must know the human mind, its processes in the acquisition and assimilation of knowledge and in the development of power, the relation of the various processes in the development of knowledge and the relation of various stimuli to mental activity. This knowledge a careful study of Psychology gives, and, in addition to all this, there is developed in the student of Psychology the power of concentration and logical continuity of thought which, in itself, is sufficiently beneficial to retain the subject on a Training School curriculum. In view of these facts and of a lengthened Model School term, I do not think the course in this department should be changed further than in the elimination of such elements as are not obviously of direct bearing on the practical working of the school.

2nd. The subjects of Book-keeping and Agriculture and Physiology should be relegated to the High Schools. The Agriculture, embracing as it does the elements of all the natural sciences, should come under the department of Nature Study, and be pre-

sented as such. This department can be much better presented in the High Schools, where laboratories are already fitted to the purpose. The sub-department of Hygiene, personal and public, as far as it relates to the school, is so intimately connected with the effective work of pupils as a fundamental condition that I do not think it can be safely abandoned in the Model School course.

3rd. The spirit and attitude of the professional student is different from that of the academic student, the one taking all the interest of an adept or professional in the process of teaching, the other the mere passing notice of an observer. The Model School should look rather to the concrete practice of the principles of the Science of Education than to the mere acquisition of these principles in the abstract. They should be viewed constantly in application. For this purpose the subjects of the Public School course should be reviewed from the teachers' standpoint. The methods by which these subjects are taught in our Model Schools must be professionally and technically correct.

NUMBER OF SCHOOLS AND LOCATION.

At present there are 55 Model Schools in the Province with an attendance, according to last report, of 1,189 students, varying from 3 to 39 students to a school. The statistical table shows that 5 schools had under 10 students, 17 schools had 15 or fewer, and 23 schools had 20 or fewer. This shows a great waste of power, which can be conserved by a reduction in the number of schools. The demand for third class teachers can easily be supplied by 35 schools. These schools, with an average attendance of 34 students, will be able to turn out as many teachers as the present 55, under existing conditions. This scheme will necessitate the redistribution of the Province into Model School Districts through the grouping of counties or otherwise. This reduction in the number of schools will also enable the Model School Inspector to make two lengthened visits each year to each school, where now he can make but one, and that for but one day.

The location should be in some large centre where buildings and other facilities are more readily secured. The lengthening of the term will also necessitate the setting apart of a special class-room to be devoted entirely to Model School work, and this brings up at once the question of compensation.

To this end, and because of the intimate relation of the school to the state, the Government should materially increase its grant to the Model Schools. At present this grant amounts to \$8,550 annually, which is supplemented by a like amount from the counties.

If the Legislative grant were increased from \$150 to \$350, on the basis of 35 schools, it would mean an expenditure of \$3,700 over and above the amount now distributed. This, together with the fees from students and the county grants, which cannot be increased without much opposition, will relieve the town more directly responsible for the principal's salary of an expense of \$600, while it will secure to it a constant supervision of its schools at an annual cost of \$400 or \$500.

Another matter to be considered in this connection is the advisability of in part basing the grant to Public Schools on the certificated qualification of the teachers. If this were done there would be a tendency to raise the grade of teachers in rural districts, thereby necessitating an influx of Junior Leaving students who have taught but one year into the Normal Schools. This, coupled with the fact that, under the new Regulations, Senior Leaving students are admitted direct to the Normal Schools without previous Model School training, will tend to offset the otherwise increased Model School attendance, when commercial depression overtakes us, thus enabling the proposed number of Model Schools to carry on the work without overcrowding.

THE PRINCIPAL.

Ultimately the success of a Model School depends upon the character of the principal. Deep scholarship is the first essential. The culture of a strong University course is none too good to bring to the work. But scholarship alone is not sufficient. Along with it must go a professional equipment acquired in a training school, and in the actual teaching and management of a Public School. This last qualification should be a *sine qua non* in awarding a certificate qualifying a teacher as Principal of a Model School. If the latter successful Public School experience is not insisted upon there is a strong probability of the work being characterized by a maximum of theory and a minimum of practical application, thus defeating the primary purpose of a Model School. Educational

theorizing by a man fresh from a training school may be made very interesting and palatable to Model School students, but if it stop short of concrete application to the everyday needs of a real school, then the great end is not attained. And this is the danger which I believe can be avoided by insisting, among other qualifications for principalship of a Model School, on at least four or five years' successful experience as principal of a Public School. If this be required, then, I think, the academic qualification may remain as it is at present, viz., Senior Leaving standing.

INSPECTORS' DEPARTMENT.

THE PEDAGOGICAL VALUE OF PSYCHOLOGY.

WM. JOHNSTON, LL.D., ATHENS.

The pedagogical value of psychology is twofold. (1) In stating and explaining the laws of mind it possesses great practical utility to the teacher, and (2) the study of the subject, in consequence of its intrinsic difficulty, affords ample mental discipline, as well as culture, in one of the highest departments of human knowledge.

Undoubtedly, the teacher should study psychology as an aid to teaching, but he loses the best part of the truths contained in it if the thoughts which have their origin in its perusal do not lead him up to that great trinity of the sublimest thoughts—God, freedom of Will and Immortality.

I shall now attempt to explain several psychological principles which are especially valuable to the teacher :

1. What is the subject or province of psychology? Every school-boy knows that psychology is derived from two Greek words, *psyche* (soul breath) and *logos* (discourse), and that the word, therefore, means soul-science; that is, a systematic discourse about the soul. But when we go one step further and inquire regarding the nature of the soul we are at once brought face to face with an insurmountable difficulty. This is the first great principle or problem of psychology. It overlies the unknown and is bounded by the unknowable.

For all practical purposes in discussion or argument, soul, spirit, mind, ego, self, subject, are interchangeable terms—the thinking principle.

The Rev. J. Clark Murray, in his "Outline of Sir William Hamilton's Philosophy," says: "The word 'mind' is of a more limited application than the term 'soul.' In the Greek philosophy the term 'soul' comprehends, besides the sensitive and rational principle in man, the principle of organic life both in the animal and vegetable kingdoms. Since Descartes limited psychology to the domain of consciousness, the term 'mind' has been rigidly em-

played for the self-knowing principle alone. Mind, therefore, is to be understood as the subject of the various internal phenomena of which we are conscious. The term 'subject' is used to denote the unknown basis which lies under the phenomena of which we become aware, whether in our external or internal experience, and it is a term now currently employed for mind or the thinking principle."

2. What is the nature or essence of mind or soul ?

In his work on "Mind and Body," Alex. Bain says: "The ultimate component elements of the human being may be regarded as composed of two substances or of one substance. If two substances are assumed both may be material or one may be material, and the other immaterial. The double material view prevailed among (1) the lower races; (2) the ancient Greek philosophers; (3) the early Christian Fathers. The material and immaterial view (a material body and an immaterial soul) had its commencement in Plato and Aristotle, and has prevailed through the periods of (1) the Latin Fathers, from the age of Augustine; (2) the Schoolmen; (3) Descartes to (4) the present time. The remaining, or one substance theory, of the soul and body, regards mind and matter the same; or rather, that mind is natural phenomena of matter. This view embraces the cruder forms of materialism, and the Pantheistic idealism of Fichte. A guarded or qualified materialism held by many physiologists and metaphysicians is the growing opinion.

"The supporters of the immateriality of the soul advance the following arguments in its favor:

"1. The soul must partake of the nature or essence of the Deity.

"2. The soul has no determinate place in the body.

"3. Reason or thought is incompatible with matter.

"4. The dignity of the soul requires an essence superior to matter.

"5. Matter is divisible; mind indivisible.

"6. Matter is changeable and corruptible; mind is a pure substance.

"7. Mind is active or possesses force; matter is passive, inert, the thing acted on.

"8. The soul is the primary source or principle of life.

"9. The mind has a personal identity; the particles of a body are continually changing."

The argument that thought is incompatible with matter is clearly stated by Thomas Aquinas. This argument seems to me to

possess great force, more than all the others. Thomas Hill Green, in his "Ethics," uses the same argument when he asks the question: Can the knowledge of nature be itself a part or product of nature? and so does George T. Ladd, in his "Elements of Physiological Psychology," when he concludes his exhaustive investigation of the physiological basis of mind in the pregnant statement that a mind is a real being, which can be acted upon by the brain, and which can act on the body through the brain." The same line of argument is followed by Sir Wm. Hamilton, in the following from Murray's "Outline": "Should physiology ever succeed in reducing the facts of intelligence to phenomena of matter, philosophy would be subverted in the subversion of its three great objects—God, Free-Will and Immortality. True wisdom would then consist, not in speculation, but in repressing thought during our brief transit from nothingness to nothingness; philosophy would become a meditation, not merely of death but of annihilation; the precept, *know thyself*, would be replaced by the terrible oracle to Œdipus: 'May'st thou never know the truth of what thou art;' and the final recompense of our scientific curiosity would be wailing deeper than Cassandra's for the ignorance that saved us from despair."

And yet, notwithstanding the force of such arguments as I have here presented, Alex. Bain tells us that 'the arguments for two substances have now entirely lost their validity; they are no longer compatible with ascertained science and clear thinking. The one substance with two sets of properties would appear to comply with all the exigencies of the case.' Bain's statement here can have only one meaning, namely, that thought, feeling and volition are properties of the matter called brain just as fusibility, ductility and malleability are properties of the matter called gold. What produces such properties we know not because they are ultimate facts in nature the reason of which must forever remain a mystery.

The one substance theory possesses the advantage of being free from assumptions which are not capable of demonstration. Thus Descartes located the soul in the pineal gland, forgetting, it seems, that, as the essence of the material is extension, the essence of the immaterial must be non-extension and, therefore, its location is an absurdity. Again, Descartes gave mind to man only and taught that animals are mere machines. In support of this statement I quote from Wilhelm Wundt's "Human and Animal Psychology":

“When Descartes denied mind to animals, on the ground that the essence of mind consists in thought, and man is the only thinking being, he could have little imagined that this proposition would do as much as the strictly mechanical views which he represented in natural philosophy to further the doctrines which are the direct opposite of the spiritualism which he taught—the doctrines of modern materialism. If animals are natural automata, and if all the phenomena which general belief refers to sensation, feeling and will are the result of purely mechanical conditions, why should not the same explanation hold of man? This was the obvious inference which the materialism of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries drew from the principles of Descartes.

Mind is now universally attributed to animals and on this question the great Descartes is left without a follower. Animal intelligence has been for many years the special study of such scholars as Charles Darwin, Sir John Lubbock, George Romanes, and many others. We have been told wonderful stories of the marvellous intelligence of crabs, ants, bees, dogs and apes. Darwin found a crab that had sufficient intelligence to remove the pebbles which he had placed near the crab's hole, and Romanes trained an ape in arithmetic until she could count up to two! The question in dispute now is, Does man's intelligence differ in kind or only in degree from animal intelligence? Romanes maintains that the difference is one of degree only and John Fiske makes it a difference of kind. Romanes attributes man's advancement intellectually and otherwise, to an anatomical accident in the larynx which gave to the human race the power of speech. Without doubt speech is the great agent in man's advancement; but of the origin of speech we can know no more than can be known of the origin of life or mind. Of this at least we are certain—and Romanes admits it—the mind of man is vastly superior to that of the most intelligent animal. Whence that superiority originated is of little practical importance, although it may be of great value in speculative philosophy. Practically your mind is the sum total of all the thoughts, feelings and volitions which have originated in your brain from the first dawn of intelligence to the present moment. How true it is, then, that no two minds are alike, and that the law of diversity holds in the mental as well as in the physical kingdom.

3. Observation and experiment should be constantly employed in the study of psychology. A mere memorization of the results of experiment and observation can be productive of little good. If

the student is not taught to observe he does not know that the statements made are true, and he cannot remember long what he does not know to be true. Not many years ago Physics, Chemistry, Botany and Geology were studied from notes or books alone, and many a student passed his examinations in that way; but it is not done so now because a more rational education has been established on the ruins of the discredited system. I fear that in our training schools psychology is still taught as science was formerly taught. The time that can be devoted to each subject during the Model School course is necessarily so short that experimental work can not be taken. Perhaps it would be better to confine the study of psychology to the Normal School and the Normal College until the training term of third class teachers is extended. A three months' term is not sufficient for psychology alone, and hence the other subjects will suffer from neglect while the present crowded Model School course continues in operation. If psychology is to have any real pedagogical value sufficient time must be taken in studying it to enable the student to master the leading principles of the science.

4. Psychological principles, which are of special value to the teacher, should be kept constantly before the student in training. The laws relating to memory and the association of ideas are possibly of paramount importance, but the intimate relationship of mind and body should not be neglected. Prof. Bain says "the entire bodily system, though in varying degrees, is in intimate alliance with mental functions." Hence *mens sana in corpore sano* is quite true. The healthy mind requires a healthy body. The importance of this principle cannot be over-estimated. The day has gone by when it was thought that to purify the mind it was necessary to mortify the body. The body should be kept pure through the purity of mind, and the mind pure through the purity of body. Thus mind and body act reciprocally upon each other.

5. Time is an important element in mental development. The truth of this statement is evident from the intimate connection between mind and body. The body does not reach maturity until after gradual growth extending over a period of nearly twenty years in the human family. Dr. Gardner, in his work on "Longevity," says that in the mammalia the period of natural life is about five times the period of growth. This law of life contains a great educational truth: that the natural time during which the

mind may maintain its efficiency reaches the limit of nearly one hundred years. The period of physical growth also indicates that education should extend over the first twenty years of life, because growth of body and development of mind should run concurrently. I do not think there is any psychological principle of greater value than this one. It is not necessary to impress upon you the fact that the cram system of education is a violation of this principle; and that true education is a process of mental assimilation.

6. Mental capacity is largely dependent upon heredity. At any time during our journey through life the shade of an ancestor may start up on our path and beckon us from the course of honor and rectitude. We are only beginning to realize the full significance of this principle. The mind of the child may be bent almost hopelessly in the wrong direction by ancestral defects. Francis Galton, in "Hereditary Genius," says: "The striking results of an evil inheritance have already forced themselves so far on the popular mind that indignation is freely expressed, without any marks of disapproval from others, at the yearly output by unfit parents of weakly children who are constitutionally incapable of growing up into serviceable citizens, and who are a serious encumbrance to the nation." Now, permit me to present to you the bright side of the question. Galton says: "There is nothing, either in the history of domestic animals or in that of evolution, to make us doubt that a race of sane men may be formed, who shall be as much superior, mentally and morally, to the modern European as the modern European is to the lowest of the Negro races." And White, in his "Elements of Pedagogy," expresses the principle that education may so change the original nature of the child as almost to make a new being. But psychology assures us that *ex nihilo nihil fit* is true in the mental as well as in the physical domain, and hence, all education is development or growth of the original or primordial germ; so that in case of tainted ancestry—mental or physical—there is always danger of reversion under the law of atavism to the original ancestral characteristics. Each of you can furnish examples to illustrate this principle. Which of you has not seen a worthless son or daughter bring down the gray hairs of a noble father with sorrow to the grave? Pernicious social environment may have done much to degrade the lost one, but the baneful tendency to do wrong is almost always found in the ascending ancestral line. You would not expect psychology to be taught in the Bible, but what do you make of this statement,

so harrowing to many a loving father or mother,—“the sins of the fathers are visited upon the children unto the third and fourth generation”? You cannot “drive a coach and four” through that law, for it is stronger than any law of England. But the teacher may impress psychological truths with such force on his pupils that “the sins of the fathers” in a future, purer and more intellectual than the present, will be reduced to a minimum, and then this law of the Bible, and psychology as well, will cease to have any binding force or validity.

7. Unceasing change is a universal law of nature. Everything is in motion. Mind is no exception to matter in this respect. Activity of mind is universal. Observe the busy brain of childhood. Listen to the incessant talk of the child. It lives in wonderland. Hear it talk to plant and flower, to bird and beast. Its mind soars away to the infinite as it gazes upon the starry heavens. The skilful teacher who knows his psychology well will be able to enlist this instinctive desire for mental activity in his pupil into the services of systematic education. The teacher will direct aright the activities of the youthful mind. He will not dwarf the mind by refusing to answer his pupil's questions or by putting him on the tread-mill of memorizing words and sentences which convey to the pupil no thought that is clearly understood. I dwell upon this principle because it is well known that the inquiring faculty of the child is frequently eradicated long before he leaves the public school. Ask him what he thinks of any great historical event and you will find that it never occurred to him that he had any right to his own opinion; and therefore he has no opinion of his own, although he may be able to tell you what the text-book says about it, and “only that and nothing more.” Now, psychology teaches that mind is the result of growth and that the food of the mind is produced by sensation and reflection (Locke); hence, if the mind does not receive sensations and is not allowed to reflect it will be dwarfed from want of nourishment just as surely as will the body if the food supply is stinted or impoverished.

A question naturally arises here. Is our school system fostering mind development or is it dwarfing the mind? I give no answer to this question; but I hope each of you will answer it and regulate your conduct in the matter of mind development in accordance with your answer.

8. A philosophy of religion is dependent upon the principles of psychology. Thus man is a moral agent only in so far as he is a

being possessed of freedom of will; and a knowledge of psychology is required to establish the doctrine of freedom. Without freedom a moral nature, a moral world, and a moral ruler of that world is without meaning. A profound study of the facts of mind leads to a belief in freedom as a basis of intelligence. A candid study of our mind leads us to the conclusion that we are free to choose the right and eschew the wrong, and that "God made man able to stand yet free to fall." In addition to these considerations psychology is necessary to counteract the pernicious effect of the exclusive study of science, which too often excludes God from the universe and substitutes in His stead a blind or mechanical necessity.

Such, to my mind, are some of the advantages of a knowledge of psychology. I would have every teacher read and study psychology. I would have every teacher thoroughly acquainted with the works of all the great writers on the subject, and I would have every teacher try to apply the principles enunciated by those writers to his daily labor in the school room.

*IN GRADED SCHOOLS CAN MORE EFFICIENT WORK BE
DONE WITH TWO CLASSES IN A ROOM THAN
WITH ONE?*

J. ELGIN TOM, GODERICH.

It is not what the teacher does for the pupil, but what the pupil does for himself that benefits him. He learns to do by doing. Self-help develops power. The habit of independent work grows into the habit of independent thinking and acting. Conquering difficulties—moral, mental or physical, strengthens him for future struggles.

The teacher should train her pupils to do their own tasks. She should guide them in their work and assist them only when they they can not advance unaided.

The teacher with only one class generally does too much for her pupils. They get no chance to do independent work in the classroom. This is not education, or a satisfactory preparation for the conflicts of after life. If we compare the graduates of the finely-graded schools with those of the ungraded schools, we usually find the former dependent, indifferent and easily discouraged, while the latter are alert, self-reliant and prepared for any difficulties.

The advantages of having two or more classes in a room instead of one are as follows :

1. Pupils are much longer with the teacher. Less time is lost in teacher and pupils getting acquainted. The teacher takes a greater interest in the pupils and exerts more influence over them.

2. The class-work does not become monotonous, and there is time for individual effort.

3. The pupils of the lower classes become familiar with the work of the higher classes before being promoted.

4. Pupils may be promoted when fit without waiting for a fixed date.

5. The classes in the First Book do not become burdensome. A teacher should not have more than five to ten pupils in a First Book class.

6. When two or more teachers in the same school are doing similar work it creates a healthy rivalry, which is an advantage to

the teachers and much more so to the pupils. The weak teacher must improve or give place to one that is efficient.

7. Occasionally a pupil is not getting on with his teacher, and if transferred to another room where the same work is taught, he generally settles down to work and does well. Changes are sometimes necessary with the best teachers.

The experiences of over thirty years of teaching and inspecting convince me that more efficient work is done in the Public Schools with two or more classes in a room than with one class.

SHOULD TEACHERS FORM UNIONS TO RAISE SALARIES?

J. S. DEACON, MILTON.

The salary question is always interesting. Teachers' salaries are certainly too low. The average salary of male teachers in counties increased from \$251 in 1871 to \$400 in 1886, but declined to \$349 in 1900; in the same periods the average salary of female teachers increased from \$182 to \$270 and declined to \$255. For the Province the averages are now \$404 and \$298, for male and female respectively. Such salaries are wholly inadequate to the cost of qualifying and to the ability and service required.

Should teachers form unions to raise salaries? This has been done in various sections of the U.S. without any good results so far as I can learn. "A National Federation of Teachers" has been formed. The object is "To secure such conditions for teachers that they may give their best efforts to the cause of education." The "Chicago Teachers' Federation" have as their object, "To obtain for teachers all the rights and benefits to which they are entitled; the consideration and study of such subjects as the Federation may deem necessary; the consideration and support of the Pension law; the study of parliamentary law." The Chicago Teachers' Federation recently affiliated with the Chicago Federation of Labor. This has caused unfavorable comment by the press. They have passed through the turmoil of an election and have elected one of their number on the legislative committee of the C. F. of Labor. The following extracts from the *Teachers' Federation Bulletin* indicate the effect of agitation. "The teacher should not wait for public conscience to bring about better conditions. God helps those who help themselves. There was a time when I thought that freedom in teaching was better than fine gold, but I see to-day that all forms of liberty are in a strange way based upon the conditions of employment. This is as true for the teacher as for the laboring man. Both are entitled to humane conditions and neither has them. I am not surprised that the grade teachers of Chicago should cast their lot with the labor unions. For are they not on the same basis? Hired by the year, working under the control of another's will, receiving small pay in the presence of immense wealth, insecure in their position and likely to be discarded at any time like worn-out machinery; the spectre of

old age poverty constantly before them. With true insight they saw that their problem like nearly every vital problem rested upon the so-called labor question, the problem of how to secure the proceeds of one's labor."

In my opinion the formation of unions to raise salaries would prove unsatisfactory; though (without coercion) they might accomplish good by discarding unwise competition and by securing a higher status among the professions. The danger is, however, that these unions would be led to unite with, and to adopt the methods of labor unions. These methods are unsuitable for teachers, because :

1. School Boards and teachers are under Government control, and it would be inconsistent to enforce demands by strikes, etc.

2. The action of trustees is not influenced by expectation of personal profit, as in the case of employers generally.

3. Both employers and employed are scattered over the entire country. There are no large bodies of either, as in factories, and on great public works.

4. The work of teachers is so varied and requires so many qualifications to ensure success that its value cannot be accurately estimated as can that of mechanics, laborers, etc. These work with matter; those with mind and soul. A given number of men or women may engage in a factory and accomplish equal amounts of completed work each day throughout the year. The same number of *teachers* may labor with equal industry and produce as many different values as there are individuals. Then, some schools are twice or three times as difficult to teach as others. There are teachers whose services are worth many times as much as the best that can be rendered by others holding the same legal qualifications. Hence it would be difficult to fix upon an equitable salary as a minimum. It would be still more difficult to secure justice for teachers of rare ability and untiring industry, by any method of combination or coercion.

Should the teachers' examinations be separated from those of the University as now proposed by the Minister of Education, the supply will be more limited, competition reduced and salaries improved.

TRIBUTE TO DR. MACCABE.

Moved by Principal Scott and seconded by Dr. Sinclair that the following tribute to Dr. MacCabe be inserted in the Minutes :

By the death of John A. MacCabe, M.A., LL.D., Principal of the Ottawa Normal School, which occurred on November 30th, 1902, the teaching profession of Ontario has lost one of its most illustrious members and this Association one, who, for many years, has taken an active and energetic interest in its work.

Dr. MacCabe was born in the County of Cavan, Ireland, January 9th, 1842. He was educated in the Irish National Schools and in the Normal School and the Catholic University, Dublin. He was English and Mathematical Master in the diocesan academies of Belfast, Kilmore and Killarney. Coming to Nova Scotia in 1869, he was appointed Mathematical Master in the Provincial Normal School at Truro, and subsequently to the English mastership of that institution. In 1875, on the opening of the Ottawa Normal School, he was appointed Principal, a position which he filled with marked ability until his death. In 1877, he received the degree of M.A. from the University of Ottawa and that of LL.D. in 1889. He has filled the position of Chairman of the Training Department of this Association and was the President of the Dominion Educational Association at its meeting in Ottawa in 1901. He found time to write a number of valuable educational works on Language, Reading and History. He was a prominent figure in social and religious circles in the Capital of the Dominion and was recognized as a representative of the highest type of Irish character.

As a teacher Dr. MacCabe was distinguished for his zeal, clearness, versatility and skill. He was a man of wide sympathies, clear judgments, courteous manners, unfailing kindness and great tact. His culture, his untiring patience, his kindly consideration for the welfare of his students, his endeavors to smooth their thorny paths, his systematic way of approaching his work, his punctuality, and his personal magnetism, have all impressed him upon the hearts of his pupils and in these it may truly be said that he still lives. Ripe in years, beloved by his friends, in the full enjoyment of his powers, in the midst of his usefulness, he has gone to his reward.

This was carried by a standing vote.

TRUSTEES' DEPARTMENT.

THE CENTRALIZATION OF RURAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

MR. PARKINSON, EDITOR "CANADIAN TEACHER," TORONTO.

The rural school problem is the most important question before the people of Ontario to-day. A study of the population of every county of the Province will reveal a growing tendency towards urban life as against a distinctly rural development. The cities are gaining in numbers and wealth at the expense of the rural communities. The factory, the shop, the warehouse, the railroad, the paved streets, the distribution of water and light to every home, the contact with the news of the world and the markets, the construction of edifices public and private, the organized city school systems, the opportunity for social life, and other motives more or less apparent, have conspired to produce congested centres of population. Over against all these there have been the well-known isolation of the farm, bad roads, bad postal facilities, uninspiring church services, unorganized schools, low prices for farm products, and other matters more or less connected in thought and more or less recognized as important to the best of social conditions.

Now, sir, what are our rural schools doing to counteract all this? Does our system of education tend to keep the boy on the farm? Or is the whole trend of his training calculated to fix his attention on the High School, then on the University, and finally to induce him to enter professional life? Does he, after one, two or more, years of life in the neighboring town, take more kindly to the hardships and selfdenial of the farm? Or does he come back filled with the idea that his father and mother are slow; and that he is too clever to earn his living by soiling his hands at the plough?

It is thought, sir, that the centralization of rural schools will solve this problem. It will bring all the advantages of graded schools to the farmer's door, keep his boys and girls at home, save them from the bedizening influences of city life; and turn them into an intelligent rural constituency.

This idea, sir, is in the air. It is becoming epidemic. It is growing in favor. It needs only to be investigated to commend it to all persons interested in education. It is not a craze or a fad. It has been under examination for many years. It has been subjected to close scrutiny from every conceivable point of view. The practical tests applied to it have confirmed the good opinion of its friends and have convinced the doubtful.

Centralized schools have been in operation in Massachusetts since 1875. In 1893, eighteen years afterwards, Seymour Rockwell, the veteran school committee man of Montague, said :

"For eighteen years we have had the best attendance from the transported children; no more sickness among them, and no accidents. The children like the plan exceedingly.

"We have saved the township at least \$600 a year. All the children now attend a well-equipped school-house at the centre. The schools are all graded; everybody is converted to the plan. We encountered all the opposition found anywhere, but we asserted our sensible and legal rights, and accomplished the work. I see no way of bringing the country schools up but to consolidate them, making them worth seeing; then the people would be more likely to do their duty by visiting them."

But, sir, what strides have been made since 1875? By turning to the report of the United States Commissioner of Education for 1894-95, we learn that Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Vermont and Connecticut had made definite legal provision regarding the transportation of children to school. By 1896 New York, Maine, New Jersey, and Nebraska were added to the list, while Ohio had a few consolidated districts transporting under a special Act. In the year 1900, State Superintendent L. D. Harvey, of Wisconsin, issued a Bulletin showing that eighteen States have laws allowing the transportation of pupils at public expense, although at that time only thirteen were availing themselves of the privilege. These eighteen States are :

Connecticut,	Massachusetts,
Ohio,	Florida,
Nebraska,	Pennsylvania,
Indiana,	New Hampshire,
Rhode Island,	Iowa,
New Jersey,	South Dakota,
Kansas,	New York,
Vermont,	Maine,
North Dakota,	Wisconsin.

To this list must be added Washington and Minnesota, while in Michigan and some other States pupils are being transported, either by implied powers without legislation directly authorizing it, or by sufferance.

In addition to the above, Illinois, Missouri, and Virginia authorize by law and have township High Schools, Tennessee has Consolidated Schools, and California authorizes, and has what are known as Union High Schools in the country. In these States there are 2,000 Centralized Schools, requiring 11,000 waggon routes for the conveyance of the pupils. Let us look at a few examples :

The township of Warwick, Massachusetts, is seven miles long by four or five miles wide. Its 102 pupils now attend a graded school, in a neat, well appointed house at the centre, the children being conveyed at public expense. In six years the town has lengthened its school year fifty per cent. ; has increased the teachers' salaries seventy-five per cent. ; has employed special teachers of Drawing and Music ; has improved the quality of instruction ; and has reduced the cost of the whole.

In 1895 the township of Buffalo Centre, Iowa, formed a school district embracing the centre township, six miles square, and erected a building of eight rooms.

For the year ending 1894, this township maintained six district schools for six months, with an average daily attendance of 90 ; " for the year ending September, 1900, eight teachers were employed nine months, and the average daily attendance was 290." In 1894 the total expenditure for all school purposes was \$5.03 per pupil per month ; in 1900 it was but \$2.31. Not only has this centralization given rural children a graded school in charge of well-qualified teachers, with a school year increased fifty per cent., and at much less cost per capita, but it has made the pupils more punctual, has brought the attendance from 90 to 290, and has had a tendency to hold the larger boys in school.

Nor, sir, is this true in the United States alone. The Minister of Public Instruction for Victoria, in Australia, reports as follows :

" Under this system of conveyance 241 schools have been closed. The saving in closed schools amounts to about £14,170 per annum. The attendance is so regular and the system so popular that applications are constantly made for its extension."

The effect of the centralization of schools on the value of farm property in Massachusetts is best shown from the following :

"Once when a man wished to sell his farm he advertised, 'a school near.' Now he advertises, 'children conveyed to good schools.' Farms sell more rapidly in this county now."

As to the cost of the schools after consolidation, the report of Mr. G. T. Fletcher, agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, gives us the following:

"Sixty per cent. of the townships report the cost less, but results better; eight per cent., cost less, but results not stated; fifteen per cent., cost the same, but results better; eight per cent., cost more, but results better; eight per cent., cost more, but result not stated."

The opinion of the largest and most important educational association in the world might, with propriety, be introduced here. The National Educational Association, at its Minneapolis meeting in 1902, passed the following resolution:

"We believe that it is both just and possible to keep the country schools in the forefront and, in all respects, up to the highest standard of excellence and efficiency. The movement to consolidate the weaker districts in the country, and to provide public and free transportation for the pupils too and from the schools, tends to that end. We, therefore, congratulate those States which have been pioneers in demonstrating the possibilities of this mode of reorganization, and renew our endorsement and commendation of it as the best plan yet proposed in relief of the isolated one-room schools.

"We believe that justice and fair play require that High School opportunities should be as ample and free to the country children as they are fast coming to be to the children of every progressive urban community."

To sum up, sir, the advantages of centralization may be stated as follows:

1. The health of the children is better, the children being less exposed to stormy weather and less likely to contract cold from damp clothing.

2. Attendance is from 50 to 150 per cent. greater, more regular, and of longer continuance, and there is neither tardiness nor truancy.

3. Fewer teachers are required, so better teachers may be secured and better wages paid. Teachers are brought together in a community where professional zeal is cultivated.

4. Pupils work in graded schools, and both teachers and pupils are under systematic and closer supervision.

5. Pupils are in better school-houses, where there is better heating, lighting, and ventilating, and more appliances of all kinds.

6. Better opportunity is afforded for special work in Music, Drawing, etc.

7. Cost, per capita, in nearly all cases is reduced.

8. Pupils are benefited by a widened circle of acquaintance and the culture resulting therefrom.

9. The whole community is drawn together.

10. Public conveyances used for children in the day time may be used to transport their parents to public gatherings in the evenings, to lecture courses, etc.

11. Transportation makes possible the distribution of mail throughout the whole township daily.

12. Finally, by transportation the farm, again, as of old, becomes the ideal place in which to bring up children, enabling them to secure the advantages of centres of population and spend their evenings and holiday time in the country in contact with nature instead of idly loafing about town.

*REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON VARIANT SPELLINGS.**

DR. A. HAMILTON, TORONTO.

Your Committee notes that the German language has of late attained an orthography made uniform, or free from variants, which becomes operative by State enactments this April. Hitherto, differing spelling-books have been used in Baden, Bavaria, Mecklenburg, Prussia, Saxony, Würtemberg, Austria, and Switzerland. All are now made to coincide, "a consummation devoutly to be wished" for our language.

This continent, from the Gulf States to the Arctic Ocean, is full of Indian names derived from Algonkin and other stocks of languages. Fenimore Cooper, in the Introduction of one of his novels ("The Last of the Mohicans"), says that the spelling of these names is in a state of utter confusion, a condition still true, unfortunately. A preliminary found necessary to setting these in order is to have a vocabulary of, say, 2000 words, with principal meanings for each, and a list of radicals, say, 200 or 300 in number, from which these spring. At a meeting of Americanists in New York City last October, your Committee took steps, thro' Ontario's representative, Mr. Boyle, to ask Americanists to make such vocabulary and list of radicals. It resulted in appointment of a committee likely to report to the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

"The New English Dictionary" (N E D), under the editorship of Dr. Murray and others, gives, after the etymology of any word, in many cases, authoritative statements as to spellings preferred, where they vary. It has been thought well to pay respectful attention to this, as both more authoritative and more recent than other lexicons. But of N E D little more than half is in print. Accordingly, it was thought well to confine this year's report to words beginning with "A," and to proceed to other letters in subsequent years. Herewith is submitted a list of preferred spellings of words in "A," with appended notes in some cases.

A Canada Board on Geographic Names has been established, and made a Fourth Report. Its Fifth Report, promised this year, will be a consolidation of previous reports. Your Committee think well

to await this before putting on record a list of geographic names with their preferred spellings.

The Committee has been enlarged by addition of Messrs. Aubrey White and J. C. Bailey, Toronto, and Mr. A. F. Hunter, M.A., Barrie, who have consented to act.

The Committee has to thank Messrs. E. A. Phipson, of London, Eng., and L. Lyon, of Ashtabula, Ohio, for long lists of words and valuable suggestions which have been utilized.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

A. HAMILTON, *Chairman.*

CHAS. G. FRASER, *Secretary.*

Toronto, 14th April, 1903.

WORDLIST IN "A."

The following words, all spelled in at least two ways, have these forms preferred :—

abatis, *abetter, abietin, abnormal, abridgment, absinth, absinthin, absinthol, accacin, *accessary (sb.), accessory (adj.), acclimatize, account, accountant, accouter, acetanilid, *acetometer, acetyl, ache, Achean, acherium, achilbein, acknowledgment, acmite, aconitin, acrolein, *addable, addorsed, adesin, adipocere, adjudgment, adjutage, admittable, adopter (chem.), adscititious, adulteress, adulterin, advertize, advowson, adz, affecter, affeer, affiliate, afraid, *agast, aggrandize, agister, aglet, agrarianize, aid-de-camp, aigret, aisle, alanin, alantin, *albumen, albumenous, *albumin, albuminous, alcaid, alchemist, alchemy, alcoholometer, Alcoran, alexipharmic, Algonkin, aline, *alinement, alizarin, alkahest, alkali, alkalize, allege, alley (a passage), ally (a marble, alliance), allyl, almacantar, almanac, almonry, alnager, aloin, altho, alum, alumine, *aluminium, *amarant(h), amarant(h)in, amassment, *ambergris, ambace, *Ameer, amercement, *amability (objective), *amiability (subjective), *amiantus, amice, amide (sb.), amidin, amine, amortize, amperometer, amphitheater, *amygdalin, amyl, amylene, amylin, anurin, anabaptize, anacoluthon, anadem, analyze, anamirtin, ananas, anapest, anathematize, anatomize, anbury, ancestral, anchoret, anchusin, ancient, andiron, android, anemia, anemone, anemonin, anent, anesthetic, anethol, *angiography, angiology, angiotomy, angusturin, anhydrid, anil, anile, anilid, anilin, animalize, ankle, annat,

annatto, antagonize, antechamber, antelope, antemetic, anterior, anthocyanin, anthrapurpurin, antiarin, antichrist, antihypnotic, antimonid, antipyrin, antitoxin, apanage, apiol, apocynin, apodictic, apologize, *apostasy, apostatize, aposteme, apostil, apothegm, apothem, *appall, appalment, appareled, appareling, apprise (to notify), appraise (to fix a price for), appui, *appurtenance, aquilin, arabin, *arbalest, arbitrament, arbor, arbutin, archduchess, archean, archeology, acheus, ardor, argol, armor, armory, arnicin, [harquebus], arsenate, arsenid, arshin, arsin, artizan, artocarpous, arval, *asafetida, asarin, asbestin, asbestos, asbolite, ascendancy, ascendant, asclepin, ashlar, askance, askant, askew, asparagin, aspidin, assize, assizer, astrean, atheneum, atropin, attar, attitudinize, attracter, auger, aught (sb.), aurin, author, authorize, autocracy, autoptic, avenin, aveilan, aventurin, *averdepois, avoset, avowry, awkward, awn, *ax, *ay (ever), *aye (yes), azotize.

* NOTES.

Abetter.—Under *-er* N E D says: “Romanic *-our*, *-or* of agent-nouns have been in most places replaced by *-er* where the related verb exists in English.”

accessary.—The sb. is etymologically *accessary*, and the adj. *accessory*, compare emissary sb. and promissory adj., but as the adj. was first taken directly from the sb. it was naturally spelt *accessary*. Being afterward “rectified” by scholars to *accessory*, after Latin *accessorius*, it drew the noun after it.—N E D.

acetometer, see *-ometer* in N E D.

addable.—Under *addible* N E D says: “*addable* follows purely English and French analogies.” *addible* follows a hypothetic Latin *addibilis*.

agast.—Erroneously written *aghas*.—N E D.

albumen and *albumin* are not synonyms.

alinement.—The English form *alinement* is preferable to *alignement*, a bad spelling of French.—N E D.

aluminium.—The termination *-ium*, now preferred, harmonizes best with other names of elements, as sodium, potassium, magnesium, lithium, selenium, etc. Both *aluminium* and *aluminum* lived for some time.—N E D.

amarant(h), also the name of a township in Dufferin Co. The *h* is not justifiable etymologically. See N E D. Milton has *amarantiu*.

amberggris.—The spelling variants are due to attempts to explain *-gris* as grease, Greece, etc.—N E D.

Ameer.—As a historical Saracen title commonly spelt *Emir*; the spelling *Amir*, *Ameer*, is used of Indian and Afghan rulers.—N E D.

amability and *amiability* are thus distinguished in N E D.

amiantus.—Spelling corrupted by confusion with *polyanthus*, etc. The correct form *amiantus* should be used.—N E D.

amygdalin, formerly *amygdaline*.—N E D.

angiography.—Under *angeio*- N E D says : “sometimes spelt *angeio*-; but Roman *i* is the true equivalent of Greek *ei*.”

apostasy.—The derivation (L. and Gr. *apostasia*) gives no countenance to *-cy*.

appall.—Both on etymological and phonetic grounds the better spelling is *appall*, as in the derivatives.—N E D.

appurtenance.—The second vowel has varied as *a*, *e*, *o*, *u*, but the last is now the accepted spelling.—N E D.

arbalest.—As the word survives only in military antiquities, it has no standard modern spelling.—N E D.

asafetida.—The British Pharmacopœia (latest edition) gives this spelling.

averdepois.—The best modern spelling is the 17th century *averdepois*; in any case *de* ought to be restored for *du*, introduced by some ignorant “improver” from 1640 to 1650.—N E D.

ax.—The spelling *ax* is better on every ground of etymology, phonology, and analogy, than *axe*, which has of late become prevalent.—N E D.

ay (ever).—*Ay*..... is preferable on grounds of etymology, phonology, and analogy.—N E D.

aye (yes).—*Aye*..... is in accordance with parliamentary usage and better on every ground.—N E D.

CONSTITUTION AND BY-LAWS
OF THE
ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

ADOPTED 1897.

PREAMBLE.

The objects of the Association are to elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching and to promote the cause of education in Ontario.

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled "The Ontario Educational Association."

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

Sec. 1.—It shall consist of at least six Departments: (1) College and High School Department; (2) Public School Department; (3) Training School Department; (4) Inspectors' Department; (5) Kindergarten Department; (6) Public and High School Trustees' Department.

Sec. 2.—Other Departments and Sections may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

Sec. 1.—Any person connected with the work of Education may become a member of this Association by paying a fee of fifty cents, and may continue a member by the payment of the same fee annually.

Sec. 2.—Each Department and Section may prescribe its own conditions for membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the General Association.

Sec. 3.—Any person eligible for membership may become a life member by paying into the treasury of this Association at any one time a fee of ten dollars.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

Sec. 1.—The officers of this Association shall be a President, the Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, and a Board of Directors. The Board of Directors shall consist of the officers of the Association, the presiding officers of the several departments, who shall be *ex-officio* vice-presidents of the Association, the secretaries of the several departments, and four directors from the College and High School Department, and one director from each of the other departments.

Sec. 2.—On the second day of each annual Convention, a President, a Secretary, and a Treasurer shall be nominated in open meeting and elected by ballot, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. The officers thus elected shall continue in office until the close of the next annual Convention.

Sec. 3.—Each Department and Section shall be administered by a Chairman, Secretary and such other officers as it shall deem necessary for the management of its affairs; but no person shall be elected to any office of any Department or Section, or of the Association, who is not at the time of the election a member of the Association.

DUTIES OF PRESIDENT.

Sec. 4.—The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform such other duties as by custom devolve upon a presiding officer, and shall be *ex-officio* member of all committees. In the absence of the President, one of the Vice-Presidents shall preside; and in the absence of all the Vice-Presidents, a *pro tempore* Chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

DUTY OF SECRETARY.

Sec. 5.—The Secretary shall keep a full and just record of the proceedings of the Association and of the Board of Directors; shall give notice of the meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors; shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign; prepare a daily order of business for the use of the Chairman; and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors.

DUTIES OF TREASURER.

Sec. 6.—The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association; shall invest, deposit or expend the same as the Board of Directors shall order; and shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditure, with vouchers for the latter, which account he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association; he shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association; and shall give such security for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors.

DUTIES OF BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Sec. 7.—The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings; and shall do all in their power to render it a useful and honorable Institution. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings immediately after the adjournment of the

annual Convention, on the day after Thanksgiving, on the day before the assembling of the annual Convention, and whenever, in the judgment of the President, a meeting may be necessary. Five of the Board of Directors shall form a quorum for business. The President shall have power to call a meeting of the Board whenever the interests of the Association may seem to demand it. Upon the written application of fifteen members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, the Board of Directors may grant such permission. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Art. II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

Sec. 8.—Two Auditors shall be elected by the Board of Directors at the November meeting, for the purpose of auditing the accounts of the Association. These Auditors shall hold no other office in this Association during their term of office.

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

Sec. 1.—A meeting of the Association shall be held annually during the Easter vacation, at which meeting twenty members shall form a quorum. The place and the precise time of meeting shall be determined by the Association at its annual meeting. Special meetings shall be held at such times and places as the President shall determine, on the recommendation of twenty members.

Sec. 2.—The General Meetings of the Association shall be held only in the evenings, and no meeting of Departments or of Sections shall be held at these times.

ARTICLE VI.—AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTITUTION.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at any regular meeting of the Association by the unanimous consent of the members present; or by a two-thirds vote, provided that written notice of alterations or amendments has been given at a previous regular session.

BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Resolutions.

2. The Bills for any expense, sanctioned by the Board of Directors, upon being certified by the President and Secretary, shall be paid by the Treasurer.

3. Each member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of the Annual Report.

4. All questions proposed for debate shall be in accordance with the declared objects of the Association.

5. Each speaker in a discussion shall be allowed ten minutes; the mover shall be allowed five minutes at the close for a reply.

RULES OF ORDER.

1. On a point of order being raised while a member is speaking, the member speaking shall at once take his seat. The point of order shall then be stated by the member objecting, and the Chairman shall, without further debate, decide thereupon, stating the rule applicable to the case without argument or comment.

2. No motion shall be put from the chair unless submitted in writing, except a motion to adjourn, to lay on the table, or of the previous question.

3. Without the permission of the Chairman, no member shall speak when there is not a motion before the Association.

4. No member shall speak to a motion until it has been delivered to the Chairman in writing, with the names of the mover and seconder thereon. The mover shall then have the first, and the seconder the second, right of speaking to such motion.

5. No amendment to a motion can be received after an amendment to an amendment, nor any motion, unless for the previous question, to lay on the table, or to adjourn simply.

6. A motion to adjourn simply shall take precedence of all motions and amendments; a motion to lay on the table of all except to adjourn; a motion for the previous question, of all except to adjourn or to lay on the table.

7. The yeas and nays upon any question shall be recorded on the minutes, when called for by five members.

8. When a member intends to speak or submit a motion, he shall rise in his place, and respectfully addressing the chair, confine himself to the question and avoid personalities; and any member once reprimanded for the indulgence of improper language and persevering in it, shall be liable to public censure or expulsion, as the Association may determine.

9. Should more than one member rise to speak at the same time, the Chairman shall at once, and without appeal, determine who is entitled to the floor.

10. Members shall speak but once on any question, including amendments, without the consent of the Association.

11. The previous question shall be put in this form:—"Shall the question be put now?" If this be carried, no further motions, amendments, or debate shall be permitted, but the question put without delay.

12. The following questions shall not be debatable:—(1st) To adjourn simply; (2nd) To lay on the table; (3rd) The previous question.

13. No amendment to the minutes shall be allowed after their adoption; and no resolution to expunge any part of them shall have any other effect than the erasure of the record, nor shall any motion to expunge be in order until after a motion for their adoption.

14. A motion to adjourn simply shall always be in order, except (1st) When a member is in possession of the floor: (2nd) When members are voting; (3rd) When an adjournment was the last

preceding motion; (4th) When it has been decided that the previous question shall be put.

15. A rule may be suspended at any meeting of the Association by a two-thirds vote.

16. These Rules of Order shall also, as far as possible, apply in Committee of the Whole.

ORDER OF BUSINESS.

The following shall be the Order of Business at the Annual Meetings:—

1st. Meeting opened with reading of Scripture and prayer.

2nd. Roll of officers called.

3rd. Reading of Minutes.

4th. Reading of Communications.

5th. Reports of Committees.

6th. Discussion of topics announced in the annual circular.

7th. New Business.

8th. Election of officers.

9th. Closing Business—Time and Place of next Meeting.

10th. Adjournment.

The Association may at any time, by a majority of votes, alter the Order of Business.

LIST OF MEMBERS

OF THE

ONTARIO EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION

1903-1904

Adams, Miss Ella, Kingston.
 Adams, W. A., Stratford.
 Addison, Miss M. E. T., B.A., Lindsay.
 Aiken, D. F., Jarvis.
 Albarus, Miss H. S., B.A., Morrisburg.
 Alexander, Helen, Galt.
 Alexander, Robert, Galt.
 Alexander, W. J., Ph.D., Univ. Coll.,
 Toronto.
 Allan, Thomas, Durham.
 Allen, Lizzie D., Kingston.
 Amy, Margery, Glenmorris.
 Anderson, Chas. W., Hastings.
 Anderson, Miss Jessie, Hastings.
 Anderson, John, Alfeldt.
 Anderson, John, Arthur.
 Anderson, John E., Blenheim.
 Anderson, William P., Ottawa.
 Andrews, R. T., Paisley.
 Anglin, R. W., B.A., Essex.
 Ardagh, John A., Barrie.
 Armour, Miss A. A., Almonte.
 Armour, S., Lindsay.
 Armstrong, James, Morriston.
 Armstrong, John, Owen Sound.
 Arthur, C. C., Cobourg.
 Atkin, Wilbur, St. Thomas.
 Auden, H. W., U.C.C., Toronto.
 Augustine, W. H., Forest.
 Avery, P. W., Ottawa.
 Aylesworth, Geo. Anson, Newburg.
 Bailey, J. J., Blyth.
 Baird, R. S., Toronto.
 Baldwin, Lawrence, Deer Park, Toronto.
 Ball, Clara M., Hanover.
 Ballard, W. H., Hamilton.
 Balls, G. H., B.A., Petrolia.
 Balmer, Miss E. M., B.A., Harbord St.
 C. I., Toronto.
 Barker, J. J., Collingwood.
 Barnes, C. A., Petrolia.
 Barr, Miss J., B.A., Caledonia.

Bayne, P. M., Alvinston.
 Beattie, M. M., Highgate.
 Beatty, A. J., Staples.
 Beer, W. B., Kincardine.
 Belanger, A., B.A., Ottawa.
 Bell, John J., Petrolia.
 Bell, Miss L. M., Drayton.
 Bell, W. N., Paris.
 Bennett, Jos., 550 Bathurst St., Toronto.
 Bernath, A. C., Huntsville.
 Birchard, I. J., Ph.D., 124 Jameson Ave.,
 Toronto.
 Black, J. C., Chatham.
 Black, Norman F., Lindsay.
 Blacklock, R. F., Smith's Falls.
 Bolster, May L., Cobourg.
 Booth, Miss Bertie, Barrie.
 Booth, Miss L. J., Barrie.
 Bowie, G. H., Ottawa.
 Boyd, Miss Annie, Kingston.
 Boyes, B. H., Dunstroom.
 Bradley, W. A., Berlin.
 Bragg, T. J., Bowmanville.
 Breakell, Isa M., Madoc.
 Brenton, Miss C., 88 Russell St., London.
 Brett, G. H., Dunnville.
 Brethour, Norman F., Mount Forest.
 Brethour, J. H., Mount Forest.
 Breuls, D., North Bay.
 Briden, W., Ingersoll.
 Bridgewater, M. C., Owen Sound.
 Bristol, Grace, Madoc.
 Brown, D. A., ———
 Brown, H. W., Berlin.
 Brown, H. W., B.A., Seaforth.
 Brown, J. Coyle, Peterboro'.
 Brown, J. A. (Whitby).
 Brown, S. W., Dunnville.
 Brown, Wm., Motherwell.
 Bruce, E. W., 246 Borden St., Toronto.
 Burchell, J. E., Prescott.
 Burchill, John, Cobourg.
 Burgess, H. H., Owen Sound.

- Burkholder, Wm., Stayner.
 Burnett, Jean, Bank St. S., Ottawa.
 Burnham, A. M., B.A., Collingwood.
 Burritt, J. H., B.A., Pembroke.
 Burt, A. W., B.A., Brantford.
 Burwash, N., Vict. Coll., Toronto.
 Butchart, Miss Ada M., London.
- Caesar, L., Port Hope.
 Cameron, A., Woodstock.
 Cameron, Mrs. A. McK., Meaford.
 Cameron, A. W., Streetsville.
 Cameron, Lucy M., Rob Roy.
 Campbell, Mamie C., Hanover.
 Campbell, M. M., Keene.
 Campbell, N., Durham.
 Carmichael, N. R., M.A., Kingston.
 Carruthers, A., Univ. Coll., Toronto.
 Carruthers, L. A., 787 Euclid Ave., Toronto.
 Carstairs, J. S., 345 Crawford Street, Toronto.
 Carter, L. M., Picton.
 Cartwright, Eliza V., Gananoque.
 Case, Ben. C., Thessalon.
 Casselman, A. C., Toronto.
 Chant, J. A., Newburgh.
 Chapman, W. F., Toronto.
 Charles, Miss H., B.A., Toronto Junct.
 Chase, G. A., B.A., 36 Maitland St., Toronto.
 Chenay, D., Windsor.
 Cheyne, Marian M., Woodstock.
 Chisholm, James, B.A., Hamilton.
 Chisholm, W. J., Kincardine.
 Chown, Mrs. G. W., Kingston.
 Chown, Geo. Y., Kingston.
 Christie, J. D., B.A., Simcoe.
 Christie, Peter, Manchester.
 Clapp, D., Harriston.
 Clapp, Miss F., Mount Forest.
 Clark, Geo. A., Elmvale.
 Clark, John, Oshweken.
 Clark, J. C., Toronto.
 Clark, L. J., 104 Avenue Rd., Toronto.
 Clark, Mrs. M. M., Meaford.
 Clark, M. N., Meaford.
 Clarke, F. B., Consecun, Ont.
 Clarke, F. H., B.A., Orangeville.
 Clendenning, Ethel, Walkerton.
 Clendenning, W. S., Walkerton.
 Coates, R., Milton.
 Colbeck, F. C., Toronto Junction.
 Cole, J. M., Woodstock.
 Colles, W. H. G., Chatham.
 Colling, J. K., Collingwood.
 Conlin, Miss E. E., B.A., Waterford.
 Cook, H. R., Conestogo.
 Coombs, A. E., Newmarket.
 Coombs, Fred. E., Bradford.
 Conant, O. P., B.A., New York.
 Connolly, John, Brockville.
 Copeland, W. A., Collingwood.
 Coram, Jabez, Drayton.
 Cork, Geo., Waterloo.
- Cornish, G. A., Lindsay.
 Cornwall, J. L., B.A., Meaford.
 Coutts, R. D., Georgetown.
 Cowless, J. P., Le Froy.
 Cowley, R. H., Ottawa.
 Craig, J. J., Fergus.
 Craig, Lucy, Belleville.
 Craig, T. A., Kemptville.
 Craig, William, Petrolia.
 Crawford, H. J., Jameson Ave. C. I., Toronto.
 Crawford, John, B.A., Niagara Falls.
 Crawford, J. T., B.A., Hamilton.
 Crawford, Mrs. J. T., Hamilton.
 Cresweller, C. L., B.A., Sarnia.
 Cruickshank, Ernest, Fort Erie.
 Culbert, H. M., Lucan.
 Currie, Miss L. N., Toronto.
 Curtis, J. T., Schomberg.
 Curzon, Miss E. M., 55 Murray Street, Toronto.
- Dale, W., M.A., St. Mary's.
 Dales, J. N., M.A., Coll. Inst., Kingston.
 Dalrymple, Mrs. A., Port Elgin.
 Davidson, J. E., Elora.
 Davidson, J. H., B.A., Markham.
 Davidson, R. R., Drayton.
 Davison, James, B.A., Guelph.
 Deacon, George, 41 Grenville St., Toronto.
 Deacon, Col. J., Lindsay.
 Deacon, J. S., Milton.
 Dearness, John, Normal School, London.
 De Bus, George, Berlin.
 DeGuerre, A., B.A., Galt.
 De Lury, A. T., M.A., Univ. College, Toronto.
 Dent, Miss Lilian M., 17 St. James Ave., Toronto.
 Denyes, J. M., Newburgh.
 Deroche, Miss E. E., Napanee.
 Dickenson, J. A., London.
 Dickey Miss M. A., B.A., 580 Bathurst Street, Toronto.
 Dickson, Geo., St. Margaret's College, Toronto.
 Dickson, J. D., B.A., Niagara Falls.
 Dingle, Miss Grace K., Meaford.
 Dixon, A. O., Brunner.
 Dixon, W. F., Galt.
 Doan, R. W., Dufferin School, Toronto.
 Dobbie, J. A., Ottawa.
 Dobson, George, Ethel.
 Dobson, Robert, B.A., Picton.
 Downey, Miss H. E., B.A., Gravenhurst.
 Downs, Miss Lena A., Hamilton.
 Drummond, Miss M. M., Ottawa.
 Drury, Minnie, 354 Piccadilly, London.
 Dubbar, S., St. Thomas.
 Duncan, Miss Bertha A., Emery.
 Duncan, Eleanor, 48 Sheridan St., Brantford.
 Duncan, Geo., 44 Egerton St., London.
 Dundas, A. A., Meaford.
 Dunkley, A. W., Orangeville.

Dunn, Miss A. T., Woodstock.

Eadie, W. M., Greenwood.

Eagle, David M., Windsor.

Edwards, C. H., Napanee.

Eldon, R. H., Harbord St. C. I., Toronto.

Elliott, J. G., Kingston.

Elliott, Wm., B.A., Mitchell.

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Evans, W. E., Galt.

Fairlie, Howard W., St. David's.

Falcott, Miss Christina, Bloomfield.

Farewell, J. E., LL.B., Whitby.

Faw, Edward, St. Thomas.

Fee, Henrietta, St. Catharines.

Ferguson, W. C., B.A., Coll. Institute,
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Fessenden, C., M.A., Peterboro'.

Fitzgerald Miss E. S., Cornwall.

Fleming, Beatrice, 154 Sydenham St.,
London.

Fleming, Miss E. M., B.A., Sarnia.

Fletcher, J., Univ. Coll., Toronto.

Fletcher, W. H., Toronto Junction.

Flint, C. K., Galt.

Flumerfelt, W. M., Claremont.

Follick, T. H., St. Mary's.

Forhan, J. W., Newmarket.

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Forsyth, D., Berlin.

Forsyth, Miss Lilian, London.

Fotheringham, D., Toronto.

Foucar, W. K., Bradford.

Fowler, R. A., Emerald.

Fraleigh, Miss Emma, Picton.

Fraser, C. G., 10 Sylvan Ave., Toronto.

Fraser, Miss M. E., Prescott.

Fraser, W. H., M.A., Univ. College,
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Frost, T. H., B.A., Bowmanville.

Fyle, Carrie, Brantford.

Fyle, Reba C., Grand View.

Galbraith, R., B.A., Simcoe.

Galna, Miss Geraldine, Owen Sound.

Gibbard, A. H., Niagara Falls South.

Gibbings, B. J., Clinton.

Gibson, B., Paisley.

Gibson, M. R., Paisley.

Gilfillan, James, Bowmanville.

Gill, Jas., B.A., 45 Maria St., Hamilton.

Gillies, Barbara, Elmwood.

Gillesby, J. B., Thornbury.

Gilroy, W. J., Mount Forest.

Givin, Miss H., Hamilton.

Glashan, J. C., LL.D., Ottawa.

Godfrey, John M., Toronto.

Goodwin, Geo. W., Sault Ste. Marie.

Goodwin, James, Grimsby.

Gordon, D. M., Qn's. Univ., Kingston.

Gordon, Nathaniel, Orangeville.

Gould, W. W., Wooler.

Gourlay, R., B.A., Toronto Junction.

Gowans, Peter, Exeter.

Graham, W. A., Weidmann.

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Grant, W., Toronto.

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Green, Miss Lily, Chatham.

Grier, M. J., Brantford.

Griffin, A. D., B.A., Woodstock.

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Guest, Miss E. J., Elginfield.

Hagarty, E. W., Harbord St. C. I.,
Toronto.

Hagerty, Annie, Kingston.

Hales, James, Toronto.

Hall, M., Elora.

Hamilton, Dr. A., 57 Harbord St.,
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Hamilton, Joan, Shakespeare.

Hamilton, J. R., Brantford.

Hardie, W., Perth.

Hardy, E. A., B.A., Lindsay.

Harkness, Miss K., Iroquois.

Harold, Miss E., Kingston.

Harold, Miss Jessie, Kingston.

Harper, J. A., Guelph.

Harper, J. M., M.A., Quebec.

Harper, Mrs. J. M., Quebec.

Harper, P. H., 220 Seaton St., Toronto.

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Hartley, J. J., Peterboro'.

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Henderson, John, St. Catharines.

Hendrie, Miss C. E., London.

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Hennessy, David, Wooler.

Hewett, Nora, Orillia.

Heyward, G. S., Chatham.

Hill, E. L., Guelph.

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Hillock, Miss J. S., B.A., Jameson Ave.
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Hills, Mrs. M., Dunnville.

Hoag, J. P., B.A., Brantford.

Hodgins, May, Harpley.

Hodgins, J. W., Seaforth.

Hodgson, J. E., Ed. Dept., Toronto.

Hogarth, E. S., B.A., Coll. Inst., Ham-
ilton.

Hogarth, G. H., B.A., Whitby.

Hogarth, J. W., Hillsgreen.

Holland, Miss Helen, Stratford.

Honeywell, Annie, City View, Ottawa.

Honeywell, Jennie, City View, Ottawa.

- Hoodless, Mrs. Adelaide, East Court, Hamilton.
 Horning, L. E., Ph.D., Victoria College, Toronto.
 Houshen, Miss Bella, Clinton.
 Houston, Wm., M.A., Educational Department, Toronto.
 Hughes, Mrs. A. M., Henry St., Toronto.
 Hughes, J. L., City Hall, Toronto.
 Hughes, T. J., 627 Lansdowne Ave., Toronto.
 Hume, J. P., Campbellford.
 Hussey, Eva, Drayton.
 Huston, H. E., Exeter.
 Hutton, M., Univ. Coll., Toronto.
- Ingersoll, L. T., St. Mary's.
 Inglis, M. E., Goderich.
 Inman, W. F., Milton West.
 Ireland, W. N., St. Catharines.
 Irvine, R. G., Uxbridge.
 Irwin, Miss F. Ida, Dresden.
 Irwin, H. W., B.A., Gananoque.
 Irwin, Miss S. C., Chatham.
 Irwin, William, Stratford.
 Isaac, Gertrude, Simcoe.
 Ivey, T. J., Sarnia.
- Jamieson, H., 146 Montreal St., Kingston.
 Jaques, M. M., Perth.
 Jarrett, Thomas, Trenton.
 Jeffery, S. H., 24 St. Mary's St., Toronto.
 Jenkins, R. S., M.A., Collingwood.
 Johnson, M. G., Depot Harbor.
 Johnston F., Belleville.
 Johnston, G. W., Univ. Coll., Toronto.
 Johnston, G. L., Hamilton.
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